The internal and external factors that influence pedagogical actions and decisions: A multiple-case study of undergraduate language teacher educators in Argentina

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Declaration of authenticity for doctoral theses

I hereby declare that this thesis, submitted in fulfilment of requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education, contains no material previously published or written in any medium by another person, except where appropriate reference has been made.

To Nekey ~

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List of Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used in the present thesis:

CELTA: Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults

CPD: Continuing Professional Development

CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

L1: Mother Tongue

L2: Second/Foreign Language

MA: Master of Arts

NS: 'Native speaker'

NNS: 'Non-native' speaker

NNEST: 'Non-native' English-Speaking Teacher

PAD: Pedagogical Actions and Decisions

TCC: Teacher Constructed Context

TESOL: Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

ToT: Teachers of Teachers

Abstract

The current study investigated the ways in which internal and external factors influence the *pedagogical actions and decisions* (PADs) of English language teacher educators. This dynamic relationship was explored through an embedded, multiple case study design of three experienced teacher educators who taught within the under-researched context of a university *English as a Foreign Language* (EFL) teacher education program in Argentina. The qualitative data collection instruments of background interviews, lesson observations, stimulated-recall interviews, and follow-up interviews were utilized to collect the data over a ten-month period. The findings offer insights on the abovementioned relationship, especially in regard to 1) the PADs teacher educators engage in, 2) the internal and external factors that teacher educators refer to in their rationales for their PADs, and 3) the ways in which the internal and external factors influence the teacher educators' PADs. These findings suggest significant implications for the field of teacher educator cognition (particularly those concentrating on how internal and external factors influence teacher educator PADs), teacher education (specifically in relation to raising future teacher educators' awareness of their rationales for their PADs), and the professional development of teacher educators.

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This research project is an examination of how internal and external factors influence the pedagogical actions and decisions (PADs) of experienced teacher educators on an English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher education program at a national, state[1] university in Argentina. This chapter 1) provides the background to and my motivation for conducting this study, 2) explains the aims and rationale for this investigation, particularly within the Argentinian context, 3) outlines the research questions, and 4) offers a brief description of how the content of this thesis is organized.

1.2 Background to the study

Prior to undertaking this doctoral project, I obtained my Cambridge Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) and started my teaching career in South Korea as an EFL instructor and university lecturer. While teaching in South Korea, I became interested in learning about the anxiety that teachers experience while instructing as I often found myself undergoing moments of anxiety immediately prior to and during teaching. This interest motivated me to undertake my Master's in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) at the University of Bath where I was fortunate enough to be exposed to the seminal works of Coates & Thoresen (1976) and Keavney & Sinclair (1978) on teacher anxiety and was therefore able to explore, and eventually publish, on this topic (Halet & Sanchez, 2017). I continued to teach EFL at a university in Japan for a further year before I decided to pursue my doctorate by examining teacher anxiety in greater detail.

After a few months of doctoral study and having the opportunity to critically read major works by Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2001 & 2007), Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy (1998), and Skaalvik & Skaalvik (2007, 2010, 2011, & 2014) on teacher self-efficacy, I decided to change the focus of this project from research on teacher anxiety to investigating the relationship between teacher educators' PADs and their self-efficacy as I believed this

[1] As this research project was conducted while studying for a doctoral degree in the UK, I have decided to utilize British terminology to describe the educational setting (i.e. 'state' instead of the American term 'public'). I want to note this as I have chosen to use American spelling as that is the variety of English I use.

shift represented greater value for the wider community of teacher educators, teachers, and educational researchers.

During the spring of 2016 I relocated to Argentina in order to embark on the data collection process. Before describing the process that I undertook while collecting my data, I believe it is necessary to explain my rationale for why I chose to conduct this study within this context. My motivation for investigating the factors which influence EFL teacher educators' PADs within the unique Argentinian EFL teacher education context was fourfold. Firstly, Argentina has a long (i.e. approximate 200-year) tradition of English language teacher education with complex socio-historical factors, which is discussed in further detail in Chapter Two (see Section 2.2). Secondly, the robustness of the Argentinian EFL teacher education context can be seen in that this context affords many opportunities for both pre-service and in-service professional learning (e.g. BA/MA/PhD programs, teacher training courses and workshops, EFL special interest groups and their events, memberships to national or provincial-level EFL teacher associations). Thirdly, this context, particularly since the 1970s, encourages pre-service teachers to engage in reflective practice (Davini, 2015). I believed that the participants in this study may have been more open and willing to speak with me about personal aspects (e.g. beliefs, emotions, and motivations) that were imperative to this research project than in other contexts which I had previously taught in (e.g. South Korea, Japan) due to their previous experience with and disposition towards engaging in reflective practice. Additionally, psychological therapy is very popular in Argentina, most notably in the larger urban areas, and, therefore, may also have promoted in the willingness of the participants to reflect and share their perceptions and emotions (Gómez, Fernández-Alvarez, & González Lizola, 2017). Lastly, I was lucky enough to have had the opportunity to meet a group of teacher educators from Argentina when they visited the University of Bath in 2015. I stayed in touch and formed close relationships with a couple of these teacher educators, who subsequently became the gatekeepers for my project.

I do want to note that I did come into this research context as an outsider, and this will be further addressed in the thesis (see Section 4.2) when I discuss the ontology and epistemology of this project. However, I believe it is beneficial to offer a brief description now of the affordances I encountered while working in this context of a teacher education program in Argentina, which was new and unfamiliar to me. I believe that the willingness of the Argentinian participants to speak openly with me about their inner lives (as explained

above) was imperative to the success of this research project. Notably, over the duration of my data collection process, I was able to develop very strong, lifelong bonds with the participants in and the gatekeepers of my study and I think this was due in part to the openness and enthusiasm of the Argentinian people. Additionally, I believe that my status as an 'outsider' was instrumental in allowing me to engage in the process of making a strange context familiar. This was particularly useful as being someone who came from outside the context with a different perspective 'allowed me to ask the 'dumb' questions, the simple questions that someone with insider status would be assumed to already know' (Naaeke, Kurylo, Grabowski, Linton, & Radford, 2010, p. 155). Thus, these affordances were imperative in my making the 'strange' familiar within this context.

While embedded in Argentina when I was collecting my data, I noticed that my participants were offering data on their PADs beyond issues concerning their self-efficacy. I, therefore, followed the advice of Kubanyiova & Feryok (2015) in which they propose that those conducting research on teacher cognition engage with the 'ecologies of language teachers' inner lives', which is a bottom-up approach, instead of engaging in more traditional top-down means of teacher cognition research which has tended to dominate the field in the past (p. 436). They recommend coming to the research process with an understanding that it is not possible to know all of the teachers' cognitions that will be unearthed. Instead, they suggest focusing on both the observable and unobservable aspects of teaching within the context they are rooted in and, in doing this, the research will be allowed to grow organically. Thus, by following Kubanyiova & Feryok's suggestions, I, as a researcher, was able to let the rich data my participants provided to naturally revise the focus of this study from only investigating the connection between teacher educators' PADs and their self-efficacy to the relationship between their PADs and the internal and external factors mitigating these PADs in the context of an EFL teacher education program at an Argentinian university. I was naturally interested in and professionally motivated towards this organic change of focus as I had often contemplated why I personally chose certain PADs, and what factors influenced these choices, while I was teaching but had been unable to thoroughly explore this complex relationship in the past. Thus, I welcomed this organically revised topic as I felt confident that my participants wanted to discuss it in detail, that it meant a great deal to their perceptions of themselves as teacher educators, and that letting the participants have a say in steering my research objectives would lessen any indication that I was passing judgement on their PADs when what I really wanted to do is to document and better understand such PADs.

Additionally, this complex relationship proved to be under-explored in the existing canon, specifically in regard to teacher educators and to the context of a university EFL teacher education program at a state institution in Argentina. As shown by authors such as Prabhu (1990), Borg (2003, 2006), and Kubanyiova & Feryok (2015), understanding of the context in which teachers educate must be taken into account in order to fully understand the PADs of said educators. Therefore, the shift in my topic also allowed me to attempt to redress the lack of representation of this important focus in the region of Latin America amongst EFL teacher educators who have a mother tongue other than English. This is significant because this context proved to play a role in shaping teachers' PADs and, therefore, I was also able to consider the contextual factors that underpin the participants' PADs in this project.

1.3 Research aims and rationale

The research aims and rationales for this current study are as follows:

- To investigate the ecologies of teacher educators, focusing not only on the unobservable, internal mental lives of the participants, but also the observable contextual factors that influence who they are, how they behave, and what they do as educators. Research on the inner lives in the forms of beliefs, cognitions, emotions, motivations of teachers in relation to aspects of their pedagogy has grown significantly over the past two decades (e.g. Borg, 1999, 2003, 2006, 2011; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Peacock, 2001; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Skott, 2015; Zheng & Borg, 2014).
- To recognize what PADs teacher educators make while instructing in the context of an EFL teacher educator program at an Argentinian state university. This research project also involved co-construction of meaning between the teacher educators and myself in order to gain an understanding of the interpretations the participants attached to these PADs (Skott, 2015).
- To identify and explore the internal and external factors which influence the PADs of teacher educators within their context of occurrence. By critically reviewing the existing literature on teacher education and the multiplicity of factors that impact on what teachers and teacher educators do while instructing, I realized that the examination into this relationship within the context of an undergraduate-level EFL teacher education program in Argentina was nonexistent. Therefore, I was offered a unique opportunity to conduct research on an under-investigated program, within an

under-researched institutional and national context and, therefore, to provide insights into the wide range of internal and external factors which might influence the actions and decisions of teacher educators and the intricate way in which these factors might mediate the pedagogical practices of teacher educators.

1.4 Research questions

My study was guided by three research questions. The first aim of this study was to identify what PADs the language teacher educators in the research context engaged in. Thus, my first research question was:

RQ1: What PADs do language teacher educators engage in?

In order to better understand the nuanced nature of language teacher educators' pedagogical choices, I developed two additional research questions. They are as follows:

RQ2: What internal and external factors do teacher educators refer to in their rationales for their PADs?

RQ3: What role do these factors play in influencing their PADs?

1.5 Organization of this thesis

This doctoral thesis is comprised of seven chapters. The current chapter (Chapter One) presents an introduction which focuses on the background, aims, and rationale of this study. The organization of the remainder of the thesis is as follows:

- *Chapter Two* offers a rich account of the current study's context by detailing the history of the English language in Argentina and why this history is important to my study. I then present an overview of the educational system in Argentina, focusing particularly on recent education reforms, state higher education, and teacher education. Lastly, the teaching institution (a large, national, state university) where my study was conducted is described in detail.
- *Chapter Three* provides a critical review of the pertinent existing literature on researching teachers and teacher educators, and the internal (i.e. beliefs, knowledge, motivation, emotions) and the environmental factors that influence teachers and teaching practice. This review was conducted with the aims of introducing the conceptual framework underlying this study and identifying the gaps in the existing

literature which thereby informed the research questions for this project.

- *Chapter Four* explains the ontological, epistemological, and methodological stances adopted in this study. Furthermore, the following aspects of the present investigation are thoroughly described: research design, data collection methods/instruments, participants, data analysis, and ethical considerations.
- *Chapter Five* presents the findings of each participant, case by case. Each case illustrates the educational and professional backgrounds of the teacher educators in this study and expounds upon the internal and external factors that mediate the PADs of the participants.
- *Chapter Six* discusses the unique and reoccurring themes that emerged in the findings in relation to the existing literature, from which this study's primary contributions are delineated.
- *Chapter Seven* summarizes the principal contributions of the current study and considers its implications for the fields of teacher education and teacher educator research. Moreover, the limitations of this study are acknowledged along with recommendations for future research in this area. Lastly, I conclude this thesis by offering my reflections on the process of undertaking a research project of this magnitude for my doctoral degree.

Chapter Two: Context

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides background information for the reader to understand the context underlying this study. The chapter is broken down into three sections: the history of the English language in Argentina (Section 2.2); the education system in Argentina – an overview of the Argentinian educational system (Section 2.3.1), recent educational reforms (Section 2.3.2), higher education (Section 2.3.3), and teacher education in Argentina (Section 2.3.4); and the institutional setting of this study (Section 2.4).

2.2 The history of the English language in Argentina

While Spanish is the official language of Argentina, English in Argentina has been held in high esteem since the early 1800s (Tocalli-Beller, 2007). This notable status was associated with the immigrant population that spoke English as a mother tongue[2] as they wielded 'a social prestige and economic power that was incomparably superior' to other immigrant communities at that time (Maersk Nielsen, 2003, p. 201). In order to understand how this community gained such prominence and the social and cultural values assigned to English and EFL in Argentina, it is necessary to look deeper into the historical relationship between Argentina and the United Kingdom.

According to Tocalli-Beller (2007), the use of English is inexplicably tied to the political relationship Argentina had with the UK while fighting for independence from Spain (1810-1818) and the period of time following independence. First, the UK contributed to the Argentinian cause by providing arms and other provisions. After independence, Argentina and the UK signed the Friendship Commerce and Navigation Treaty in 1825 which, as a byproduct, promoted British migration to Argentina. The UK continued its relationship with Argentina through the means of investments into the economically crucial 'areas such as railways and ports, shipping companies, banks and insurance companies' (ibid., p. 109), as well as the burgeoning of 'the meat processing industry' (Maersk Nielsen, 2003, p. 201).

By 1823 there were 3,500 immigrants that spoke English as a mother-tongue living in

[2] This does not include English speakers that worked in 'hard manual labor' (Maersk Nielsen, 2003, p. 201).

Argentina (Moyano, 1997). Immigrants came from all parts of the UK: England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland[3]. According to Maersk Nielsen (2003), those immigrants from Ireland, Wales, and Scotland primarily left their respective domains in order to flee their circumstances and to seek better opportunities as rural farmers. Those from England principally immigrated as skilled railway employees or as professional executives and managers who worked for successful British businesses operating within Argentina (ibid).

Due to the significant relationship between Argentina and the UK, as well as the predominant status of many English-speaking immigrants to Argentina, the English language gained an important place in Argentina. Tocalli-Beller (2007) notes that the first English class occurred in 1818 at the *Colegio de la Unión del Sud* in Buenos Aires and the first course focusing on the English language took place at the University of Buenos Aires in 1826. Private bilingual English-Spanish language schools were developed during the 1800s in an attempt to teach the children of the English-speaking immigrants (Porto, 2014). Moreover, the first teacher education course in the English language[4] followed in 1904 and continues to this day (Tocalli-Beller, 2007). As of 2018, there were 160 state run and private universities and 33 university-level institutions (*instituto universitario*) throughout Argentina (Monroy, 2018), many of which ran EFL teacher education programs that offered students a degree in English language teaching (*Profesorado de Inglés*). Additionally, there were also higher education institutes and *colegios superiores* which provided English language teacher education courses. It is this history and prestige of English language teacher education that attracted me to select Argentina as the context for this research project.

I was attracted to the established nature of the English language teacher education system in Argentina and hoped that, despite it being an under-researched area, would offer valuable insights into the complex relationship between the PADs teacher educators use and the internal and external factors which influence said PADs. One of the main aspects that drew me to Argentina as the context for my study was the perception I had of the prevalence and popularity of psychologists in the country (c.f. Alonso & Klinar, 2015; Romero, 2012). I thus believed my participants would be more open and willing to talk about sensitive information such as, but not limited to, their thoughts, perceptions, emotions, beliefs.

[3] The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland consisted of England, Scotland, Wales, and the entirety of Ireland from 1801 till 1922.
[4] *Profesorado en Lenguas Vivas*

2.3 The educational system in Argentina

2.3.1 Overview of the Argentinian educational system

In order to be able to better understand the context in which this research project was conducted (i.e. an EFL teacher education program at a Argentinian national, state university), it is necessary to provide a brief overview of the Argentinian educational system in general. The Argentinian Ministry of Education requires all Argentinian children to attend compulsory primary (i.e. 6 – 11/12 years old) and secondary (i.e. 12 – 17 years old) education under the National Educative System (*el Sistema Educativo Nacional*) (Instituto Internacional de Planeamiento de la Educación, 2019). Secondary education is broken down into two cycles: the basic cycle (*ciclo básico*) (i.e. core curriculum) and the oriented cycle (*ciclo orientado*) (i.e. focusing on distinct areas of knowledge) (Instituto Internacional de Planeamiento de la Educación, 2019; "Niveles Educativos", n.d.; Nuffic, 2019). After secondary education has been completed students then have the option to continue studying at the tertiary level (ibid.). The organization of the Argentinian education system, which is the same for both publicly funded state education and private schools and universities, is depicted in Table 1 below.

While education in Argentina seems to be well-regarded, it must be noted that the Argentinian Ministry of Education has documented that the level of dropouts amongst secondary students is high and that many students at this level are unable to finish their studies within the allotted timeframe (Monroy, 2018). Additionally, primary school students have been reported to 'perform poorly in comparative tests, such as the OECD PISA' (Kelly, 2013, p. 2) and lag behind most of their Latin American neighbors (Monroy, 2018).

Table 1: Organization of the Argentinian educational system

Ages:	**6 - 11/12**	**12 - 17**	**18+**
Education Level:	Primary education	Secondary education: Basic cycle **OR** Oriented cycle	Tertiary education (optional)

2.3.2 Recent educational reforms

1993 was a momentous year for the Argentinian educational system. The Federal Law of

Education No 24.195 (*Ley Federal de Educación*, 1993) went into effect and ushered in 'long-awaited reform[s] that would decentralize education and outline a curriculum in light of global trends as well as in the national context' (Tocalli-Beller, 2007, p. 108).[5] Firstly, in regard to decentralizing education, it is important to note that in Argentina, each of the 23 provinces[6] have their own Ministry of Education which 'ha[s] formal jurisdiction over matters like grading practices, funding, quality assurance mechanisms, graduation policies, rights and obligations of students, teacher salaries and school calendars' (Monroy, 2018, p. 8). The 1993 federal law was noteworthy as it mandated that the national government work in conjunction with each of the 23 ministries of education to establish a national curriculum (Snow, Cortés, & Pron, 1998). Secondly, the 1993 federal law 'encouraged multilingualism and multiculturalism' (Zappa-Hollman, 2007, p. 619) and therefore included EFL as requisite in the national curriculum (Porto, 2014). Despite revisions to the 1993 federal law, English education still currently occurs in British-model schools, bilingual schools, private language schools, public schools, and higher education (Maersk Nielsen, 2003; Tocalli-Beller, 2007) thereby making it possible for my study to be conducted in this context.

2.3.3 State higher education

As the participants in this study were teacher educators at the university level, it is necessary to briefly outline the history and structure of higher education in Argentina. University education has existed in Argentina since 1613 when the National University of Córdoba (*Universidad Nacional de Córdoba*) was founded (Times Higher Education, 2018). Universities were consistently being established throughout the country; however, a large push in the development of further higher education establishments occurred in the 1960s and 1970s when the national government was seeking new partners within the private, entrepreneurial free market and therefore founded nineteen additional universities (De Figueiredo-Cowen, 2002). Currently, there are approximately 60 national, state universities that receive funding from the Argentinian government. In Argentina, national, state (i.e. public) forms of higher education are free of charge for undergraduate students who are

[5] The Federal Law of Education No 24.195 was repealed in December 2006 and replaced with National Law of Education (Ley Nacional de Educación No 26.206) (Zappa-Hollman, 2007). One aspect of the 2006 law required that EFL would be taught from primary school through the end of secondary education (Porto, 2014).

[6] In addition to these 23 provinces, the city of Buenos Aires is considered an autonomous entity (CABA = *Ciudad Autonoma de Buenos Aires*).

nationals of the Republic of Argentina[7]. Typically, undergraduate degree programs are supposed to last for three to five years and are open to 'all secondary school graduates who hold a *Bachiller* or *Tecnico*' [degree] (Monroy, 2018, p. 10). It is also important to note that each individual university has its own entry requirements as there is no final, national, standardized test at the end of secondary education as there is in the UK or France (Kelly, 2013; Monroy, 2018). A further interesting factor related to the Argentinian undergraduate system is that the dropout rate for students at the tertiary level is higher than in their neighboring countries; 'only 27 percent of Argentinian students completed their [university] studies, meaning that Argentina had a dropout rate of 73 percent' (Monroy, 2018, p. 2). Of the students who are able to graduate, many need to take longer than the prescribed three to five years in order to complete their degrees. Scholars have hypothesized that this may occur as 'many students still need to work long hours to support themselves', typically 'between 36 and 45 hours a week', while they also study fulltime (Kelly, 2013, p. 2) and may also be due to 'the decentralized and fragmented nature of the [educational] system and the fact that there is no nationwide secondary school leaving examination' (Monroy, 2018, p. 3).

Furthermore, the style of instruction at the university level varies but, as generalized by Leal & Marquina (2014), university teaching on a whole 'seems to be stuck in traditional characteristics, to be reluctant to innovation' and 'the inclusion of new teaching strategies seems to depend more on personal interest and commitment on the part of the teacher than on an institutional policy' (p. 245). I found this statement by Leal & Marquina (2014) to be particularly interesting and provocative and I therefore set out to see if this proved to be accurate within the context I was investigating.

2.3.4 Teacher education in Argentina

According to the British Council (2015), teacher training in Argentina in the field of EFL is extremely demanding and respected. Nationally, the *profesorado* degree offered at public and private universities trains future EFL teachers in the areas of 'discursive practices, citizenship, intercultural studies and learning' (British Council, 2015).[8] Two different tracts exist within the *profesorado* and students may choose to focus on EFL for primary students or EFL for secondary/higher education/private institution students ("Department careers",

[7] In 2015, the Higher Education Directive upheld that 'free and unrestricted access to university-level education at public institutions' (Monroy, 2018, p. 10).
[8] As compiled in a 2010 report by Argentinian universities (British Council, 2015, p. 16).

2018).

Despite Argentina's long history with the English language and EFL teacher education sources describe that there is a great need for EFL teachers at primary and secondary schools in Argentina (British Council, 2015; "Study plan 1999", 2018; Zappa-Hollman, 2007). In order to meet this demand, as stated in both Zappa-Hollman (2007) and Delgado (2002), many unqualified teachers have undertaken EFL positions throughout the country. This is also echoed in the local community where this study was conducted ("Study plan 1999", 2018). In many cases, these teachers do not have a 'suitable teaching certification' or degree and 'lack the necessary English language skills and/or pedagogical knowledge' (Zappa-Hollman, 2007, p. 621) and this thereby may have direct consequences on the quality of EFL being taught in Argentina (British Council, 2015).

2.4 Institutional setting of this study

This study was conducted at a prestigious, large, national, urban, public university in Argentina. Various incarnations of this university had existed since the early 1960s and the university examined in this study was finally consolidated in its current form in 1975 ("Institutional", 2018). It currently consists of 10 faculties and has over 20,000 students. All research occurred within the Department of Letters and Modern Languages, which was founded in 1976, in the Faculty of Humanities. The teacher educators that participated in this research project taught on the Teacher of English degree program (*Profesorado de Inglés*) and instructed in at least one of the four main areas of the curriculum that are prescribed on the degree: linguistic skills, linguistic foundations, teacher training, and cultural studies ("Contents of the career", 2018; "English teachers", 2020). The program's curriculum in which this study was conducted emphasizes the attainment of an advanced level of the English language and focuses on educating future English language teachers in three fields of content: theoretical knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and cultural training. The tables below delineate specific information regarding the main content areas in relation to the four fundamental areas that comprise the Teacher of English degree program (see Table 2 on the next page) and a summary of this study's participants in relation to the area they taught and the teaching approach and assessments utilized on the Teacher of English Language program (see Table 3 on page 14).

As shown in Table 2 on the next page, a wide variety of content and topics are covered as

part of this teacher education program. Table 3 (on page 14) illustrates the area in which each participant was observed teaching on as well as the approaches and assessments they used while they were observed instructing. Fran was observed teaching a module on pedagogical knowledge and employed multiple types of assessments: homework, in-class assessments, group projects, and formative and summative examinations. Ines was viewed teaching a module focusing on cultural training, specifically American literature, and she also utilized in-class assessments and formative and summative examinations. Julieta was observed teaching a module on the improvement of the four language skills and grammar knowledge and employed assessments in the form of homework assignments and formative and summative examinations. All three of the participants utilized what seemed to be an eclectic mix of the reflective, sociocultural, and communicative approaches to teaching. Moreover, the *profesorado* runs on a semester system and takes at least five years to complete ("Study plan 1999", 2018); however, many students take longer than five years to complete the program.

Table 2: Features of the Teacher of English Language program

Four fundamental areas	Main content
Language skills area	• English language encompassing the four skills
Theoretical knowledge	• Linguistic foundations: grammar, phonetics, phonology, English language history • Linguistic theory
Pedagogical knowledge	• Teaching methodologies • General themes in education • Developmental psychology • Curriculum and teaching/education systems • Teaching practice
Cultural training	• History of Great Britain • History of the USA • English literature • American literature • Comparative literature • Optional subject in philosophy, anthropology, sociology, history of western thought, or Spanish grammar

Table 3: Summary of participants in relation to teaching area, teaching approach, and assessment on the Teacher of English Language program

Participant:	Primary teaching area:	Teaching approach:	Assessment:
Fran	Pedagogical knowledge	Eclecticism	• Homework assignments • In-class assessments • Group projects • Formative and summative exams
Ines	Cultural training	Eclecticism	• In-class assessments • Formative and summative exams
Julieta	Language skills area / Theoretical knowledge	Eclecticism	• Homework assignments • Formative and summative exams

The teacher educators in this study all required that their students obtain the course materials (e.g. photocopies, novels) for their classes. The students were able to purchase their own photocopied materials from a local copy shop where the participants kept a copy of the materials they had each designed to be covered during the semester. The classrooms in which the teacher educators taught in typically contained a blackboard or whiteboard and had a small flat-screen TV. None of the classrooms had DVR or computer equipment. Nothing else was provided in the classrooms (e.g. no books, no dictionaries) except for the student desks and a table and chair for the participant. The conditions of the faculty in which the *profesorado* degree was taught were rather run-down with missing ceiling panels, ill-fitting windows that blew open in the wind, faulty heating, broken student desks, and walls plastered with flyers. Additionally, there were typically too many students for the size of the classroom allotted to the classes. The factors of this context played a role in the teacher educators' PADs, as will be shown in Chapters Five and Six. Such factors as those mentioned above created challenges during this study. Specific environmental aspects also posed challenges while collecting data. For example, severe weather had the ability to cause interruptions to and cancellations of classroom observations and interviews with the participants. Moreover, broad social issues such as strikes, which have been well-documented in the existing literature (e.g. Iñigo Carrera, 2007; McGuire, 1996; Murillo & Ronconi, 2004; Murillo, Tommasi, Ronconi, & Sanguinetti, 2005) and other circumstantial instances impacted the

context (e.g. poor infrastructure such as heating). While generalizations from this study are impossible to draw as this study was conducted qualitatively, implications for other contexts can be drawn and are discussed in detail in the conclusion to this thesis (Chapter Seven).

Chapter Three: Literature review

3.1 Introduction

A large number of studies have been conducted by internationally recognized scholars on aspects of internal (e.g. beliefs; knowledge; motivation; self-efficacy) and external (e.g. context; stress; workload) factors which influence teachers' and teacher educators' PADs, and the ways in which they do so. In this chapter I review the existing literature in order to a) position this study within the canon, b) supply this study with a solid theoretical grounding, and c) identify the gaps in the canon that my study aims to address. It is important to note that many of the seminal studies which I consult and review in this chapter were conducted in various other educational contexts (e.g. secondary education, other geographic locations). Ideally, I would have liked to have been able to review more studies that were completed in similar contexts to this project (i.e. university level in Argentina or Latin America) but, unfortunately, there proved to be a scarcity of literature related to the aims of this current project. This dearth of literature has allowed me to position this research project and show that the aims and context of this study are under-researched and thus, to call for further research in this area. Additionally, there is value in attempting to understand how internal and external factors influence the PADs of teachers and teacher educators beyond the main parameters of this study as it is possible to draw on the findings from studies that were conducted in different educational contexts and make inferences that are potentially relevant to this study, whether empirically, theoretically, or methodologically. The literature review is organized as follows, so as to critically examine the concepts that are related to the focus of my study: Firstly, Section 3.2 concentrates on teacher research and is split into three subsections. The first subsection explains why it is necessary to study teachers (3.2.1) while the second subsection examines who teacher educators are (3.2.2). The third subsection discusses models of teacher education and the pedagogical models of language teacher education (3.2.3). Secondly, Section 3.3 focuses on teacher cognition and the internal factors which may impact on teacher practice. This section is divided into further subsections to examine four important constructs of teacher cognition: teacher beliefs (3.3.1), teacher knowledge (3.3.2), teacher motivation (3.3.3), and teacher emotions (3.3.4). Thirdly, Section 3.4 examines the external factors that may affect teacher practice and is presented in three subsections: micro-level (3.4.1), meso-level (3.4.2), and macro-level (3.4.3). Lastly, Section 3.5 provides a summative conclusion to this chapter.

3.2 Researching teachers

This section discusses the various existing pedagogical models of teacher education and language teacher education. While some have argued that one overarching, standardized pedagogy specific to teacher education does not exist (Goodwin, Smith, Souto-Manning, Cheruvu, Tan, Reed, & Taveras, 2014), there are several accepted pedagogical models and approaches that are worth discussing. An overview of the *craft*, *applied science*, *reflective*, and *sociocultural* models will be discussed in relation to the *teaching for understanding*, *contemplative*, *clinician-professional* approaches and the works by Shulman (1987), Richards (1996), and Kumaravadivelu (2012). Lastly, a discussion of the future of pedagogical models and approaches will be provided.

3.2.1 Why study teachers?

The focus of my study is on teacher educators and the internal/external factors that influence their PADs in the context of an undergraduate level EFL teacher education program at a state university in Argentina. Some may wonder why I have chosen to investigate only teacher educators and not focus on learners as well. While I believe the process of education cannot exist without students and their learning, I equally believe that teachers are an integral part of the learning process. This sentiment echoes Hattie's (2003) seminal study that identified the main factors that affect student success and examined excellence in teaching. According to Hattie, what teachers say and do (e.g. provide feedback, instruction, goals, classroom environment[9]) 'account for about 30% of the variance' in the achievement of their students (p. 2). This is one of the most important factors reported, second only to students' own responsibility for their learning. Other factors, including the students' homes, schools, principals, and relationship to peers, showed little overall influence on student learning. Therefore, in order to increase student achievement, Hattie states that 'interventions at the structural, home, policy, or school level' are not effective (ibid.). Rather, scholars suggest that the focus should be placed on the teachers as they are the ones who work directly on the front lines with the students (Goodson, 1992; Hattie, 2003; Kelchtermans, 2017). Thus, my study has researched teachers, specifically teacher educators, in an attempt to better understand who teachers are, what they experience, which decisions they make, and the affect that they have within the context they taught.

[9] A comprehensive list of influences is listed on page 4 of Hattie's (2003) study.

3.2.2 Teacher educators

In this study, I will use the term teacher educator throughout. As this is not the only possible term that could have been used, I believe it is necessary to provide a distinction between teacher educators and teacher trainers as two distinct camps have emerged in regard to terminology. Diaz Maggioli (2014) explains that teachers become teacher trainers or educators in two main ways: 1) through a concentrated certificate program that highlights practice or 2) through an undergraduate or postgraduate university degree program that prioritizes theoretical knowledge. The first manner is generally associated with teacher trainers while the second tends to align with teacher educators. Educational scholars have attempted to provide a comprehensive distinction between those who are teacher trainers and teacher educators (e.g. Crandall, 2000; Diaz Maggioli, 2012; Richards, 1989, 2008; Widdowson, 1997). Crandall (2000) describes that the role of training future teachers is to develop 'skills to apply…knowledge in the practice of language teaching, with a limited opportunity to observe and practice that theory in actual classrooms' (ibid., p. 36). This is primarily done through the repeated processes of modelling, explanation, and monitored practice (Diaz Maggioli, 2012) on an intensive course over a limited period of time (e.g., TEFL certificate, CELTA certificate, Trinity certificate) (Diaz Maggioli, 2014). In doing this, the trainee should be able to reproduce what they have learned in any teaching situation. While teacher training programs give vast numbers[10] of teacher trainees access to the educational field and may be seen as a successful means for them to acquire and learn how to apply necessary skills, the way in which student teachers are 'trained' has been scrutinized. Opponents to the process of teacher training take issue with the formulaic way in which teacher training occurs as it 'conjures up images of robot-like transmission and unreflective application of procedures to the classroom' and thereby think this approach may possibly hinder the learning of those teachers being trained (Diaz Maggioli, 2012, p. 6).

Conversely, the term teacher educator seems to be viewed more positively by those in language teaching education (Crandall, 2000; Diaz Maggioli, 2012, 2014; Goodwin et al., 2014; Widdowson, 1997). But who are teacher educators? In 1986, Lanier and Little stated that scholars could not precisely define who teacher educators are as they had been continuously ignored in the research at that time. Currently, however, more research has been conducted on teacher educators and we therefore have a better understanding of what this

[10] Diaz Maggioli (2014) states that Trinity College London and the University of Cambridge train approximately a combined 20,000 new teachers each year on their programs.

term denotes. Teacher educators have also been conceptualized as *teachers of teachers* (ToTs) (Diaz Maggioli, 2012) and at face value they are responsible for imparting their subject knowledge, teaching their students how to instruct, and helping them learn how to become educators (Ben-Peretz, Kleeman, Richenberg, & Shimoni, 2012). They also act as a model for what they perceive as good teaching for their students (Korthagen, Loughran, & Lunenberg, 2005; Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Sweenen, 2007; McKeon & Harrison, 2010; Swennen, Shagrir, & Cooper, 2009), thereby enacting Lortie's (1975) *apprenticeship of observation*[11]. Whereas some view that the role of teacher trainers is to focus on the acquisition of skills, proponents of the term teacher educator view teacher educators as focusing on instilling their students with the specialized knowledge they will need in order to be successful within the profession (Crandall, 2000; Diaz Maggioli, 2012). Moreover, teacher educators promote a type of learning that is more collaborative and introspective than their teacher trainer counterparts in that teacher educators actively involve 'theory, action, and reflection' in their teaching instead of merely transmitting knowledge and ways of teaching to their students (Diaz Maggioli, 2012, p. 7). In order to fulfill their role, teacher educators must have a deep breadth of the subject knowledge and the act of teaching itself so that they can appropriately convey the key aspects of each to their students (McKeon & Harrison, 2010). Such knowledge can be gained through the second route into the educational field described above (i.e. through an undergraduate or postgraduate university degree in teaching) as these programs focus on academic, theoretical knowledge over teacher training programs that prioritize practice (Crandall, 2000; Diaz Maggioli, 2014; Richards, 2008; Widdowson, 1997). Therefore, proponents of the term teacher educator (Diaz Maggioli, 2012; Murray & Male, 2005; Richards, 1989; Smith, 2005) believe that teacher educators are dedicated to teaching student-teachers and have 'a deep understanding of what it means to teach *about* teaching' (Goodwin et al., 2014, p. 285). These proponents also think that the type of teaching exemplified by teacher educators helps pre-service teachers become prepared by having adequate knowledge to continue to thrive as educators as the field evolves (Diaz Maggioli, 2012).

While there seems to be merit in differentiating between the terms teacher trainer and teacher educator, as previous scholars have made convincing arguments for this distinction, it is also possible for teachers who have undergone what is described as teacher education to have

[11] In that teacher educators draw upon aspects of their own experiences as learners (Borg, 2006).

experienced aspects which can be described as formulaic or robotic (descriptions which are traditionally reserved for teacher training) during their education. The inverse is also possible (i.e. that those undergoing teacher training may have experienced aspects which the existing literature attributes to teacher education). In my own learning, for example, I have participated in both teacher education (e.g. MA) and teacher training (e.g. CELTA, DELTA) and feel that I learned as much about modeling good teaching behavior and certain specialized knowledge in my field during the DELTA as I did during my MA. Additionally, it may be presumptuous of me, as a scholar from the Global North with no previous experience in the Global South, to assert that English language teacher training in the Global South is more focused on the formulation of teaching skills while teacher education is focused on instilling specialized teaching knowledge. While the participants in the present study all worked in a teacher education context (i.e. an undergraduate program to teach future English language teachers) it is important to note that in Argentina, prospective teachers have access to both educational routes (teacher training and teacher education) as well as multiple formal and non-formal opportunities for engaging in professional learning and, therefore, many teachers can be seen as having been educated through a combination of both systems (i.e. teacher training and teacher education) and external opportunities (see Section 2.2). However, it is necessary to remember that this may not be the case for many future educators around the world and, therefore, despite the apparent disfavor amongst scholars for the term teacher training, teacher training may act as the foremost way for future educators to learn about and practice the teaching profession within their contexts.

3.2.3 Pedagogical models of teacher education

This section discusses the various existing pedagogical models and approaches of mainstream teacher education and language teacher education. Four models from language teacher education (i.e. *craft*, *applied science*, *reflective*, and *sociocultural*) will be examined in relation to four approaches from mainstream teacher education (i.e. *social justice*, *teaching for understanding*, *contemplative*, and *clinician-professional*) and will also be tied to the most seminal pedagogical models of teacher education by Shulman (1987), Richards (1996), and Kumaravadivelu (2012). Two comprehensive tables which summarize the models, approaches, and key features mentioned in this section can be seen below (Table 4 on page 22 and Table 5 on page 23). Table 4 highlights the key features of teacher education models while Table 5 offers a snapshot of the key features of approaches to teacher education.

The first conception to be examined is the *craft* model of language education (i.e. apprentice-expert (Day, 1991); look and learn (Diaz Maggioli, 2012), which was primarily practiced until the conclusion of the Second World War (Wallace, 1991). According to Diaz Maggioli (2012), this model places the teacher educator on a pedestal, 'as a model to be emulated, much in the same way as apprentices learned their craft from masters during the Middle Ages and the Renaissance' (Diaz Maggioli, 2012, p. 8). In the craft tradition, knowledge is passed from the educator, who is viewed as a specialist, to the student teacher and it is the student's responsibility to listen to and to replicate the practices employed by the teacher educator (Wallace, 1991). Proponents of the craft model (e.g. Shenhouse, 1975) suggest that if the student teacher is able to learn the prescribed knowledge and techniques through use of this model, the said student teacher will be able to teach any type of learner in any context (Diaz Maggioli, 2012).

While the craft model was more fashionable during the first half of the twentieth century, more recent scholars have noted (e.g. Diaz Maggioli, 2012; Richards, 2008) that programs that train future teachers,[12] such as the CELTA and TEFL certificates, continue to follow this approach and thereby certifies a multitude of trainees who can show they are able to replicate the prescribed teaching methods and practices they learned on the teacher-training course (Diaz Maggioli, 2012). Thus, it appears that the craft model emphasizes student teachers replicating what they have seen rather than demonstrating their understanding of teacher education theory (Day, 1991; Diaz Maggioli, 2012; Wallace, 1991). This theory is now considered to be 'reductionist' and 'unreflective' (Diaz Maggioli, 2012, p. 9) as well as overly traditional and reliant on the world remaining fixed and unchanging (Wallace, 1991). This poses a significant issue for teacher education in that those who subscribe to the craft model view what the teacher educator does and those practices that he/she employs as infallible and therefore beyond reproach. This aligns with the post-positivist *clinician-professional* approach to teacher education from general education that also views the teacher educator as the font of all knowledge (Sockett, 2008). The belief that the teacher educator is all-knowing and that students should merely model what their teacher educators do stifles pre-service teachers from gaining a true sense of how intricate and complicated the process of

[12] It is interesting to note Diaz Maggioli's choice of terminology here. He specifically uses the term *training*, *trainer*, or *trainee* when discussing the craft model, instead of the terms *education* or *educator* which he explained as having a more favorable connotation. This is, perhaps, due to the craft model being viewed as 'reductionist' (2012, p. 9).

Table 4: Key features of teacher education models

Model:	Key features
Craft model (Apprentice-expert; Look and Learn)	• Popular in first half the twentieth century • Educator is the specialist (top-down) • Knowledge is passed from the educator to the student • Student is responsible for replicating the practices of the educator (focus on 'training', not 'education') • Aligns with Clinician-professional approach
Applied science model (Rationalist; Read and Learn)	• Created in response to the lack of a theoretical foundation in the craft model • Based on the hard sciences • Student is responsible for understanding the theory and knowledge being passed by their educators • Educator is the specialist (top-down) and tends to be conservative and behaviorist in nature • Remains popular in language teacher education
Reflective model (Think and Learn)	• Created as a reaction to the applied science model • Encourages future teachers to reflect on their own learning and teaching and to get into the mindset of being a teacher • Does not want student teachers to follow a prescriptive model • Teacher educators are more than transmitters of knowledge
Sociocultural model (Participant and Learn)	• Formed of aspects from previous models (e.g. craft, applied science, and reflective) and stems from Vygotsky's works • Incorporates practice, theory, and reflection so student teachers can develop into teachers • Learning as a social, cultural, and contextual undertaking
Post-method	• Championed by Kumaravadivelu (2001, 2012) • Wants pedagogical models of language teacher education to move beyond prescribed models
Eclectic	• Mixed typed of teaching methodology rather than following one prescribed method • Must be context appropriate

teaching is (Sockett, 2008). Therefore, opponents to this tradition purport that there are many valid models of teaching, including Kumaravadivelu's (2006) *post-method* model. Despite the noticeable faults of the craft model, this model may be appropriate to help meet the ever-increasing demand for EFL professionals or for teacher educators who teach in very regulated contexts (Diaz Maggioli, 2012).

Table 5: Key features of teacher education approaches

Approach:	Key features
Social justice approach	• Advocates for teacher educators to promote learning that is pertinent for student teachers • Encourages self-reflection of student teachers
Teaching for understanding approach	• Emphasis on how content knowledge moves from teacher educator to future teachers • Educator is focused as a facilitator • Student teachers must be actively involved in their own learning
Contemplative approach	• Foundations from Zen Buddhism, Daoism, and Confucianism • Developed in response to previous approaches and pairs reflection with the knowledge of theory and practice • Urges future teachers and teacher educators to reflect and focus on their own experiences with learning and teaching
Clinician-professional approach	• Post-positivist • Educator knows all • Students should strive to model educator

It is from the aforementioned shortcomings that the next tradition to be examined, the *applied science* (i.e. *read and learn* (Diaz Maggioli, 2012); *rationalist* (Day, 1991)) model, was born into existence (Wallace, 1991). The applied science tradition also stems from language teacher education and was created in response to the absence of a clear theoretical foundation within the craft model (Diaz Maggioli, 2012). This model of teacher education derives from the attainments in the hard sciences over the last 200 years (ibid.) and stresses that it is the students' responsibility to gain an understanding of these achievements, theory, and

knowledge from their educators and to thus use relevant aspects of them in their own teaching (Diaz Maggioli, 2012; Wallace, 1991).

While the applied science model emphasizes that the learning of theory will only enhance student teachers' practice (Wallace, 1991), which is opposite of the craft model, it aligns with the craft tradition in one main way. As with the craft tradition, the applied science model stresses that teacher educators are specialists who are the holders of knowledge and thus they are the ones who impart this wisdom to their students (Diaz Maggioli, 2012; Wallace, 1991). This top-down model, therefore, may also be prohibitive to students since it suggests that only one manner of teaching is correct (Diaz Maggioli, 2012). Despite the fact that the applied science tradition can be characterized as being conservative and behaviorist, especially when it is used in the form of repetitive practice drills, it has nevertheless remained popular and is considered to be a dominant force in modern language teacher education (Wallace, 1991).

In reaction to the applied science model, Schön's (1983) formative work, *The Reflective Practitioner*, called for more active reflection within several fields and therefore led to the *reflective* model of language teacher education (Diaz Maggioli, 2012). The reflective model, which is also known as the think and learn tradition, fosters student teachers to reflect on their own learning and teaching and to '*THINK* like a teacher' (ibid., p. 11) rather than just emulating a prescriptive model. Instead, teacher educators and student teachers should be encouraged to engage in reflective practice, both at the time of teaching and post-teaching (Diaz Maggioli, 2012; Wallace, 1991).

Proponents of the reflective tradition explain that teacher educators in this model are no longer viewed merely as someone who transmits teaching theories and practices but are rather thought of as 'a facilitator and model of professional thinking' for their student teachers (Diaz Maggioli, 2012, p. 11). Reflective teacher educators should encourage their students to reflect upon their 'own experience—both as learners and as students of teachers—and contrast it with what theory claims should be done in the classroom' (ibid.). This is important because every teaching procedure stems from a certain theoretical aspect, even if the teacher is not acutely aware of this (ibid.). Without reflection, teacher educators and student teachers may be incapable of acknowledging and understanding the reasons they act the way they do whilst teaching, thereby potentially limiting their growth as educational professionals. Alternatively, students and educators who mindfully self-reflect are able to

'frame and reframe experiences through the repertoires of values, knowledge, theories, and practices' (Diaz Maggioli, 2012, p. 11). This educational tradition seems to fit the reality of the participants in the present study as they expressed their desire to be models for their students and they encouraged their students to reflect upon their own learning and teaching experiences. The reflective nature of the participants in the current investigation could be enhanced by their workplace promoting further reflection on their part as a means of professional development, but this was not the case as of the end of this study.

Parallels between this model and the *contemplative* approach within mainstream education - with its foundations extending from eastern schools of thought (e.g. Zen Buddhism, Daoism, Confucianism) (Bai, Scott, & Donald, 2009), can be drawn. Firstly, both traditions were developed as a response to previous traditions. While the reflective model was born in reaction to the prioritization of theory in the applied science model, the contemplative approach was created in order to combine reflection with the knowledge of practice and theory that was highlighted in earlier models (Whitcomb, 2010). Additionally, as indicated above, introspection within the reflective model of teacher education leads to a better understanding of oneself as a teacher. The contemplative approach also stresses the significance of student teachers and teacher educators partaking in self-examination so that they may be able 'to know oneself, connect with others, and to find one's place in the social and natural world' (ibid., p. 600). This approach also allows for student teachers to relax and focus on themselves as learners and teachers (Bai, Scott, & Donald, 2009). Contemplation, or reflection, is crucial in this approach, as having a better understanding of who they are as educators/students will serve to better inform the praxes they engage in and to promote learning amongst their students (Whitcomb, 2010).

Shulman's (1987) seminal pedagogical model within the field of general education, which identifies five main features underlying the pedagogical choices that teacher educators make (i.e. comprehension, transformation, instruction, evaluation, and reflection), can be seen as incorporating aspects of the reflective and contemplative traditions in that it encourages reflection. In Shulman's (1987) model, self-evaluation and reflection by teachers are essential. Evaluation can also be seen to relate to accuracy and efficiency since teacher educators not only evaluate their students' comprehension and progress, but also assess themselves and their practices in order to learn from their experiences (ibid.). This is directly tied to Shulman's principle of reflection that urges teachers to critically analyze, regularly

evaluate, renovate, and restructure their teaching (Shulman, 1987). For example, by engaging in evaluation and reflection, teacher educators may be able to mitigate issues, such as a divergence of perceptions between the students and themselves or the lack of interaction during a lesson. Additionally, through evaluation and reflection, educators can emphasize the areas that their student teachers need to improve in and can therefore encourage them to autonomously focus on these issues.

The other notable feature within Shulman's pedagogical model is that he believed content was notably absent from teacher education at that time. Shulman's (1987) work can be seen as being revolutionary in that it appeals for the restructuring of educational content from one grounded in the memorization of facts to one promoting students' ability to partake in critical analysis occurred from the middle of the last century onwards. Shulman (1987) maintains that teacher educators must have a good understanding of what they are teaching and the methods they are using. This comprehension may help to aid educators to prepare for lessons and to select appropriate materials. Teacher educators can reflect upon their own teaching performances through self-refection and evaluations of their teaching.

Shulman's call for content aligns with the *teaching for understanding* approach from general education in that this approach emphasizes the way in which content is passed from educator to student and places importance on the beliefs that teacher educators have concerning content (Whitcomb, 2010). The role of a teacher educator who follows the teaching for understanding approach is that of *facilitator*, or someone who is capable of shaping 'engaging problems or essential questions that guide learners to construct understanding of disciplinary concepts' (ibid., p. 600). This tradition prefers the involvement of students in their own learning as opposed to having professional knowledge merely given to them (Whitcomb, 2010).

The next tradition to be examined, the *sociocultural learning* theory, attempts to draw aspects from the craft, applied science, and reflective traditions together (Diaz Maggioli, 2012). The term sociocultural can refer to many different theories (Cross, 2010), but they all stem from the works of Vygotsky (Feryok & Pryde, 2012). Vygotsky's (1978, 1986) works stress the significant role of context in teaching and learning and contend that 'all higher-level cognition is socially and culturally mediated' (Cross, 2010, p. 442). Prior to Vygotsky, many models related to learning and teaching were constructivist (Diaz Maggioli, 2014). Vygotsky built on these constructivist theories, such as that of Piaget which outlines 'that human beings

are, from early childhood, active, independent meaning-makers who 'construct' knowledge rather than simply 'receive' and 'store' it' (Moore, 2012, p. 6), to view learning as an action that is developed through social aspects (Lantolf & Johnson, 2007). These social aspects refer to social traditions and procedures positioned within the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Diaz Maggioli, 2014). Through the act of mediation in the ZPD, the learner should be able to transition from being socially supported to being able to regulate oneself and thus learn (ibid.).

The sociocultural model of language teacher education, which incorporates the use of practice, theory, and reflection as set out in previous models, places importance on assisting student teachers to '*BECOME* teachers' (Diaz Maggioli, 2012, p. 12). This tradition stresses that those who are learning must exert themselves cognitively (Johnson & Golombek, 2011) in which their understanding is filtered through social and contextual factors. Proponents of this model, which Diaz Maggioli (2012) also refers to as the *participate and learn* approach, believe that the act of learning is not specifically tied to each learner and therefore should be perceived as a social undertaking. This community draws on various types of socially constructed knowledge (e.g. professional, personal, community) in order to form new comprehensions regarding learning and teaching (ibid.). Therefore, the role of a teacher educator in the sociocultural tradition is to utilize the prevailing cultural and contextual knowledge relevant to the society in question (i.e. the student teachers) in order to help promote learning (Diaz Maggioli, 2014). This is also appropriate to the actions of the participants in the current study as they would often draw on local, Argentinian contextual and cultural knowledge when educating.

The sociocultural tradition may be seen as linked to the mainstream pedagogical teacher education tradition of the liberal *social justice* approach (Whitcomb, 2010). The social justice approach advocates for teacher educators to create courses, including materials and means of assessments, that are pertinent to their students in order to close the gap between academic knowledge and the lives of the students (ibid.) and this may therefore be related to the importance that the sociocultural tradition places on social mediation. Additionally, the social justice tradition encourages self-reflection amongst student teachers, specifically focusing on the characteristics, preconceptions, and viewpoints they have (Schneider Kavanagh, 2017), as within the sociocultural and reflective approaches.

The final model of teacher education to be considered in this section has arisen from the

works of Kumaravadivelu (2001, 2003, 2006, 2012) and Brown (2002), both of whom advocate for many aspects that are similar to those examined previously. However, they call for pedagogical models within language teacher education to move beyond the existing prescribed methods of teaching towards a 'principled' approach to eclecticism (Brown, 2002, p. 12). In order to accomplish this, he proposes ten guiding principles that follow the current post-method thinking for the EFL classroom so that teacher educators can create useful materials and to implement effective activities that are relevant to the specific context (ibid.). This notion is contradictory to Richard's (1996) model of language teacher education which specifically advocates for the use of a set method while instructing. While prescriptive models may have been in favor within the craft, applied science, and to some extent the reflective traditions, many teacher educators are currently leaning in favor of adopting a more mixed, or eclectic, type of teaching methodology rather than following one prescribed teaching method (Diaz Maggioli, 2012; Sanchez, Kuchah, Rodrigues, & de Pietri, 2018). Proponents of eclecticism invite educators to call on the understanding they have of traditional teaching methods to piece together aspects of these methods to create something new (Kumaravadivelu, 2012) that is appropriate for the context in which they teach (Sanchez et al., 2018). As explained by Alharbi (2017), educators who adopt a principled eclectic approach 'select the teaching methodology that synchs well with their own dynamic contexts' by creating a syllabus, designing a course, and outlining the course's objectives that incorporate the needs of the students within their particular context (p. 35).

While some may view an eclectic approach as amorphous and an excuse not to be guided by principles of learning and second language acquisition, proponents of eclecticism refute this critique by explaining that eclecticism strives to provide ample prospects for students to improve their language skills in a fair, supportive, and reflective environment (Cushing-Leubner & Bigelow, 2014). Cushing-Leubner & Bigelow (2014) further explain that eclecticism does have guiding principles since principled eclectic educators 'are mindful of seeking out and creating authentic texts and tasks for learners to engage in meaningful language, seeing errors and corrective feedback as opportunities for focused language instruction' (p. 249). This, however, causes pause and raises uncertainty as to whether postmethod eclecticism is indeed a reaction to existing prescribed methods or whether it is just another method (Bell, 2003; Cushing-Leubner & Bigelow, 2014; Dergisi, 2010). Perhaps instead of focusing on which side of the method argument eclecticism falls, postmethod eclecticism, as explained by Bell (2003), does not 'imply the end of methods but rather an

understanding of the limitations of the notion of method and a desire to transcend those limitations' (Bell, 2003, p. 334) by focusing instead on social construction, context, student needs, and practicality (Alharbi, 2017; Bell, 2003; Cushing-Leubner & Bigelow, 2014; Kumaravadivelu, 2001).

One reason for incorporating eclecticism into teaching is, as Sanchez et al. (2018) explain, because many of the established teaching methods are imbedded with norms that are centric to the global North and therefore, may be inappropriate for contexts contained within the global South. Research (e.g. Copland, Garton, & Burns, 2014; Kuchah, 2013; O'Sullivan, 2002) has found that influential factors such as teaching environments with too many students and too few resources, which again may manifest within the context of the global South (and within the context of this current study), have the power to impact the application of pedagogies in the developing world (Sanchez et al., 2018). Thus, it is difficult to state that any particular established teaching method is appropriate for the context of this study and therefore, it may be best for teacher educators to combine aspects of educational traditions together in order to create an eclectic 'model' appropriate for their students' needs and the context in which they teach. The following section (3.3) will examine such influential factors, both internal and external, in greater depth.

3.3 Internal factors influencing teacher practice

This section examines the complex nature of teacher cognitions and how four of its constructs - beliefs (3.3.1), knowledge (3.3.2), motivation (3.3.3), and emotions (3.3.4) – impact on teacher educators' practice. Before discussing these cognitive features, it is essential to investigate what the term *cognition* comprises. According to Borg, who has reviewed the field of language teacher cognition and investigated many relationships, including the one between teacher cognition and teaching practice, teacher cognition has been researched extensively and is therefore categorized by various conceptualizations and definitions which are far from uniform (2006). Many authors have defined cognition (e.g. Borg, 2003, 2006; Harmon-Jones, 2000; Johnson & Golombek, 2011; Kagan, 1990; Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001). Yet, each definition contains rather similar components as to what cognition consists of: self-reflections, beliefs, and knowledge (Kagan, 1990); 'beliefs, attitudes, values, and feelings' (Harmon-Jones, 2000, p. 185); 'knowledge, beliefs, conceptions, and intuitions' (Verloop et al., 2001, p. 446); 'cognition, knowledge (and its sub-types), beliefs, attitudes, conceptions, theories, assumptions, principles, thinking and

decision-making' (Borg, 2006, p. 272); and positionality within 'culture, context, language, and social interaction' (Johnson & Golombek, 2011, p. 1). Despite these numerous characteristics of teacher cognition, one of the most oft-cited definitions, perhaps due to its simplicity, is that teacher cognitions are 'what teachers know, believe, and think' (Borg, 2003, p. 81) and what they feel (Borg, 2016). This is how teacher cognition is conceptualized in reference to the present study.

In the field of language education, studies on teacher cognition and its relatedness to other aspects of teaching have been conducted. As Feryok (2010) explains, the cognitions of language teachers have been investigated in regard to topics such as the process of learning a language, the pedagogy underlying language learning, and one's own previous experiences with learning. Additionally, researchers have argued that teacher cognition is intertwined with the practices teachers employ within the classroom (Borg, 2006; Foss & Kleinsasser, 1996). As this study is concerned with the internal and external factors that influence teachers' PADs (i.e. what they do in the classroom) in the context of an undergraduate-level EFL teacher education program in Argentina, it is necessary to examine the existing literature on this relationship. Borg (1999, 2003, 2006) provides comprehensive overviews of the research conducted during the late 1990s and early 2000s on the ways in which teachers' cognitions are seen to be interrelated with their classroom-based procedures. A concise summary of such studies can be seen in Table 6 on the following page. While many studies have been conducted on the cognition-practice interaction (e.g. Andrews, 2003; Borg, 2003, 2006, 2011; Phipps & Borg, 2009), it is important to note that none have focused on the relationship between the cognitions and PADs of teacher educators. Additionally, none have been carried out in the context of Latin America as this current study does.

One of the most important recent developments to occur in the field of teacher cognition is the bottom-up concept of 'ecologies of language teachers' inner lives' that Kubanyiova & Feryok (2015) have put forth in response to the conventional, cognitivist top-down view of teachers' cognitions (p. 436). In this model, Kubanyiova & Feryok (2015) propose that researchers stop setting teachers' cognitions in opposition to their actions and, instead, concentrate on a combination of those aspects which are observable (i.e. the 'purposeful actions at the individual level') and unobservable (i.e. the 'intentional mental processes or states') of language teachers (p. 440). In doing this, researchers of teacher cognition will be able to appropriately position the complex inner lives of teachers more contextually, such as

Table 6: Adapted from Borg (1999, 2003): Studies detailing a relationship between teachers' cognitions and PADs

Source	Connection between teachers' cognitions and PADs:
Breen, 1991	Certain teachers' PADs are selected in order to encourage their students' learning in the language classroom
Burns, 1992	Teachers' cognitions (beliefs) in relation to their students and the language being taught affect their PADs
Johnson, 1992	PADs are chosen in order to promote instructional management and student understanding, motivation and involvement' (1992: p. 527)
Nunan, 1992	Teachers' cognitions (worries) are connected to their PADs related to classroom and instruction management
Johnson, 1994	Teachers' cognitions (beliefs) related to their own learning affect their PADs
Bailey, 1996	PADs to deviate from the planned lesson for various reasons
Burns, 1996	Various teachers' cognitions (beliefs) influence teachers' PADs
Richards, 1996	Teachers' cognitions (maxims) in mainstream education generally tend to shape their PADs except for those influenced by contextual factors
Smith, 1996	Teachers' PADs are greatly affected by teachers' cognitions
Ulichny, 1996	Teachers' PADs may not always match their cognitions (principles)
Woods, 1996	Teachers' cognitions (beliefs, attitudes, knowledge) significantly impact their PADs
Gatbonton, 1999	Teachers' cognitions are foremost tied to the PADs associated with language management
Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001	Teachers' cognitions influence teachers' PADs in relation to interaction amongst the classroom's parties
Andrews, 2003	Teachers' cognitions (beliefs) are linked to their classroom practices
Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004	Teachers' PADs are correlated, to a certain extent, with teachers' cognitions (beliefs)

within the environment in which they teach, which is undoubtedly influenced by 'social, cultural, and historical' aspects (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 440).

My study aligns with Kubanyiova & Feryok (2015) in two main respects. Firstly, I concur with the importance that they place on context as it has a proven, significant impact on teachers' cognitions. Kubanyiova & Feryok want teacher cognition research to move beyond what has been categorized as the cognitivist epistemological vantage, which appears to be the standard today, specifically so that context will be taken into consideration. I agree that cognition is not fixed or isolated and, therefore, should be inclusive of the contextual features of teachers' inner lives I thus actively incorporated this belief into the current study. Secondly, Kubanyiova & Feryok state that, prior to research being conducted, it is impossible for researchers to establish the range of language teachers' cognitions that will be uncovered. Instead, they explain that this type of research requires *organic* development. This is how my study attempted to investigate the cognitions of teacher educators in relation to their PADs. While I initially wanted to investigate the impact of teacher self-efficacy beliefs on their PADs, I realized once in the research context that I could not force this enquiry. Thus, I allowed my participants and the context to steer the direction in which my study would ultimately take (see Sections 1.2 and 4.2).

3.3.1 Teacher beliefs

While my interests lie generally on the mental worlds of teacher educators, this section focuses on examining the existing literature on the discrete cognitions of individuals. It is necessary to review this literature in order to illustrate the varied range of constructs that teacher cognition encompasses. The first aspect of teacher cognition to be examined is teacher beliefs. The topic of teacher beliefs has been extensively studied for over half a century with numerous definitions of beliefs posed (Borg, 2006; Pajares, 1992). These diverse clarifications have created confusion as to what exactly this cognitive construct entails (Basturkmen et al., 2004). Despite this perplexity, it is imperative to study teachers' beliefs as they shape the ways in which teachers manage the relationship between the student, teacher, and the pedagogy in a specific context (Breen et al., 2001). Teacher beliefs can be difficult to research, however, as they are not clearly visible to outsiders and are therefore studied by researchers by examining the actions and disclosures of teachers (Blake, 2002). Therefore, this section provides a brief overview of the various conceptualizations of what constitutes teacher beliefs.

In 1987, Nespor published an article that became one of the first main catalysts that propelled research on teachers' beliefs to the forefront to academic research on teacher cognitions. In

this article, Nespor explains that cognitive constructs, such as beliefs and knowledge, are inextricably tied to one another[13]. He also asserted that the beliefs that teachers have are defined by their prior experiences with learning and teaching and, therefore, influence the ways in which teachers think and behave presently and in the future. This sentiment echoes Lortie's (1975) concept of *apprenticeship of observation* and is confirmed by many further studies (e.g. Almarza, 1996; Golombek, 1998; Johnson, 1994, 1999; Mak, 2011; Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Nespor further called for researchers focusing on teacher beliefs to create a model substantiated by theory which could be used as a structure for future comparative studies (1987). Pajares (1992) answered this call by attempting to exemplify teacher beliefs. He drew upon existing research in the fields of education and psychology to create a list of 16 determinant factors of teacher beliefs. Most notably, Pajares (1992) states that beliefs develop when the individual is young, are connected to one another, and are resilient. This is consistent with Kagan (1992), who also asserts that teacher beliefs are 'relatively stable and resistant to change' (p. 66). She also contends that teacher beliefs are not explicit in their nature and rather are reflexive in nature (ibid.).

The amount of studies focusing on teacher beliefs has exponentially increased in the last 30 years (Borg, 2006). Simon Borg has proven to be one of the more prolific academics in the field of teacher cognition and has published many works that examine teachers' beliefs (2003, 2006, 2011). In 2009, the study by Phipps & Borg, which investigated the relationship between teachers' instructional and grammar beliefs, outlined nine characteristics of teaching and learning beliefs that teachers hold, three of which align with the previous assertations by Pajares (1992) and Kagan (1992). These can be seen in Table 7 on page 34.

What is most notable about this study is that Phipps & Borg specify that there is a distinction between teachers' and language teachers' beliefs; the last three characterizations of beliefs in Table 7 are specific to language teachers. Also, point six (i.e. beliefs and praxes are interrelated) may be seen as being opposed to two of Pajares' categorizations of beliefs – the older a belief is, the harder it is to modify (number 10) and it is unusual for beliefs to change once an individual is an adult (number 11) - which describe that beliefs that are formed earlier in life are harder to change and that it is unusual for beliefs to change once someone is an adult (1992). Similarly, Mak's (2011) mixed-methods enquiry into the beliefs (comprising

[13] In fact, entire studies have been devoted to trying to clarify how they differ (e.g. Abelson, 1979; Pajares, 1992).

aspects such as ideals, personal philosophies, presumptions, and viewpoints) of an EFL language teacher in Hong Kong confirmed that the beliefs that teachers hold influence how they view the act of teaching and what they are like when engaged in this act (cf. Phipps & Borg, 2009; Kagan, 1992; Lortie, 1975; Pajares, 1992). This aligns closely with Pajares' 12th (i.e. 'beliefs are instrumental in defining tasks and selecting the cognitive tools with which to interpret, plan, and make decisions regarding such tasks') and 13th (i.e. perceptions are greatly impacted by beliefs) characterizations of beliefs (1992, pp. 325-6). Table 7, on the following page, provides a visual representation of how the characteristics of teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning align with the previous studies conducted by Johnson (1994), Kagan (1992), Lortie (1975), and Pajares (1992).

In an attempt to address the fact that the existing literature on teacher beliefs poses contradictory evidence as to what teacher beliefs consist of, Fives & Buehl (2012) address these inconsistencies in their review and offer a revised conceptualization as to what teacher beliefs are. They state that teacher beliefs are: 1) 'implicit and explicit', 2) 'exist along a continuum of stability', 3) 'are activated by context demands', 4) are part of 'integrated systems', and 5) are 'interwoven' with teacher knowledge (pp. 473-477). While many of these characterizations align with the studies mentioned above, all of these factors underlie one of the main themes that runs through teacher belief studies. This theme contends that 'the precise relationship between language teachers' beliefs and their teaching is complex' (Borg & Sanchez, 2020, p. 16) and, therefore, sometimes teachers' PADs (i.e. their enacted beliefs) prove to be contradictory to teachers' stated beliefs (i.e. what one perceives as being her belief system). Many studies have found such a correlation (e.g. Andrews, 2003; Basturkmen et al., 2004; Basturkmen, 2012; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Johnson, 1994; Phipps & Borg, 2009). For example, while Andrews (2003) perceived a strong link between teachers' beliefs and their teaching procedures, the studies by Basturkmen et al. (2004), Li & Walsh (2011), Johnson (1994), and Phipps & Borg (2009) all found this relationship to exist at various levels, from conflicting to unconvincing. This incongruency between teachers' espoused beliefs and the beliefs that actually underlie their actions while in the classroom may be due to both internal and external influences (Fives & Buehl, 2015). Thus, it is important to note that there is a distinction between stated and enacted beliefs in the existing research on teacher cognition.

Also, it is important to mention researchers who approach the topic of teacher beliefs from

Table 7: Adapted from Phipps & Borg (2009): Characteristics of teachers' teaching and learning beliefs

Specific to:	Characterization:
Teachers	1. Shaped by previous personal learning (aligns with Kagan, 1992; Lortie, 1975; Pajares, 1992); 2. Provide a way to clarify and understand newly learned / experienced knowledge (aligns with Pajares, 1992); 3. More significant than teacher education as there is a strong correlation between teachers' beliefs and PADs in the classroom (aligns with Kagan, 1992); 4. Continually affect teachers' PADs; 5. Sometimes do not align with classroom PADs; 6. Interrelated to praxes (and praxes may alter beliefs);
Language teachers	7. Influence language teachers' PADs (aligns with Johnson, 1994); 8. Affect the knowledge learned when studying to become teachers; 9. Are possibly fixed and stable.

the vantage of situated theory. According to Fives & Buehl (2012), situated theory is significant as it 'reframes beliefs from an individual characteristic to beliefs in situ' and thus acknowledges that 'the construction of beliefs and belief enactment is shared in the classroom community', which is accurate for the participants in the present study (p. 476). Skott, who is a main proponent of situated, participatory theory in regard to teacher beliefs (Skott, 2001, 2009, 2015), identifies four main conceptual issues with teachers' beliefs: subjectivity, mental and affective features, stability, and interpretation and engagement with problems (2015). The first conceptual issue that Skott defines, subjectivity, regards beliefs as paradigms that are true for each individual (2015). Secondly, Skott conceptualizes teacher beliefs as being mentally created, but also as being formed due to emotions. Thirdly, he postulates that teacher beliefs are 'temporally and contextually stable' that is, they are time and context specific, and will only be altered as 'a result of substantial engagement in relevant social practices' (Skott, 2015, p. 18). While context is mentioned in previous studies on beliefs (e.g. Fang, 1996; Pajares, 1992; Phipps & Borg, 2009), Skott's works place great importance on the role of context in relation to teachers' beliefs. Lastly, Skott (2015) defines that the beliefs that teachers hold have the ability to radically impact how teachers perceive and address issues that arise while teaching, or, more simply put, that teacher beliefs are tied to the ways in which teachers perceive and manage work-related issues that arise. Skott's premises align with the teacher educators in the present study in that the participants' beliefs were constructed individually and subjectively (although it can be argued that the beliefs of the participants were co-created socially with their students and that the participants became aware of these beliefs due to undergoing this research process and, therefore, their beliefs

were co-constructed when engaging in this study's stimulated recall interviews), were often based on emotions, appeared to be stable, and had the ability to affect perceived issues.

Moreover, some research has been conducted into the beliefs of language teachers and how these beliefs impact on their professional practice. As Kumaravadivelu (2012) explains, a variety of studies have found and explored the relationship between English language teacher beliefs and the ways in which the teachers instruct (e.g. Basturkmen et al., 2004; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Garton, 2008; Phipps & Borg, 2009), with the abovementioned existing literature showing that a disparity between language teacher beliefs and practices exist. For example, the study by Basturkmen et al. (2004) revealed discrepancies between the beliefs expressed by English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers' and the actual practices used to concentrate on form while the study by Farrell & Lim (2005) also found inconsistencies between English language teachers' beliefs about teaching grammar and how they were observed instructing in the classroom. Phipps & Borg (2009) also investigated ESL teachers' 'core' and 'peripheral' beliefs in relation to how they teach grammar and also found discrepancies due to the outlying beliefs held by the teachers (p. 381). Further examples of the relationship between language teacher beliefs and practices are discussed in Section 3.2.3 which examines teacher self-efficacy.

Lastly, a few studies have been carried out which focus on the influence that contextual / environmental factors have on the relationship between the beliefs and practices of educators and have yielded diverse findings. For example, Borg (1998) found that beliefs about 'external contextual factors did not appear to interfere with the implementation of the teacher's pedagogical system' in the case of one language teacher at a Maltese English language institute (p. 30). This was later echoed by the study by Jamalzadeh & Shahsavar (2015) within the context of EFL institutes in Iran. Conversely, both Borg (2006) and Fives & Buehl's (2012) reviews on teachers' beliefs noted that educators' perceptions of the environment/context in which they teach do have the ability to shape their teaching praxes. Various studies support this assertation that contextual factors directly mediate the relationship between teachers' beliefs and PADs (e.g. Andrews, 2003; Johnson, 1994; Klassen & Chiu, 2011; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Richards & Pennington, 1998; Tsang, 2004). For instance, the study by Tsang (2004), which was conducted within the context of pre-service educators in Hong Kong, described that the environment/context, predominantly the interaction with stakeholders, in which future educators taught had the

capacity to modify beliefs and practices. Phipps & Borg (2009) also found that contextual factors, particularly regarding classroom management, influence the relationship between teacher beliefs and the teachers' PADs enacted regarding grammar teaching despite a varying amount of correlation. Moreover, the factors of time and time constraints have also been explored in relation to its potential impact on educators' beliefs and their PADs. Both Andrews (2003), within the context of Hong Kong, and Farrell & Lim (2005), in Singapore, observed that time constraints in which they faced have the ability to feel burdensome and therefore, to inhibit their enactment of their teaching practices. Thus, based on the evidence uncovered in these studies, contextual/environmental factors such as time constraints, classroom management, and externally imposed policies, need to be taken into account in order to gain a holistic understanding of the relationship between educators' beliefs and practice.

The relationship between educators' PADs and their beliefs has also been investigated in relation to teachers' desires to help their students succeed. Teachers may attempt to do this in a variety of ways, such as through the use of humor, praise, and positive comments. One specific way that has been shown to accomplish this is by means of humor in the classroom has been documented in the existing literature. Kher, Molstad, & Donahue (1999), Senior (2006), and Bell (2009) reviewed how humor, and the educators' beliefs behind it, can influence the classroom environment. Senior (2006) reported that, in language classrooms, teachers believe that the utilization of humor 'can draw people together, enhancing feelings of friendliness, camaraderie and unity' (p. 175). This aligns with the findings by Kher et al. (1999) and Ziyaeemehr, Kumar, & Abdullah (2011) who each discussed how educators in their studies viewed humor as important in establishing a comfortable learning space. Bell (2009) further expounded that teachers viewed humor as having the ability to put students at ease, which helps 'to create a comfortable classroom atmosphere, to create bonds among classmates, to raise student interest, and…to make learning more enjoyable' (p. 241) and thereby to facilitate the students' learning. This finding is echoed in the studies by Gönülal (2018), who investigated beliefs surrounding the role of humor within Turkish university EFL classes, and Ziyaeemehr et al. (2011), who researched humor in university ESL classes in Malaysia. These findings seem to indicate that educators believe that use of humor in language classrooms serves not only psychologically and socially, but also adds value pedagogically to the language learning classroom.

3.3.2 Teacher knowledge

The second teacher cognition construct to be considered is teacher knowledge. Teacher knowledge, including its various dimensions (see Section 3.3.2.1), is a significant area that has been studied in great depth and yet, scholars remain conflicted as to how to precisely conceptualize this construct. This is primarily because each definition proposed is influenced by the focus of the study to which it is connected (Verloop et al., 2001). Nevertheless, Verloop et al. (2001) attempt to provide a general definition of the all-encompassing term *teacher knowledge*. They state that it is a form of cognition which consists of 'the total knowledge that a teacher has at his or her disposal at a particular moment' while teaching and that this knowledge, which stems from teachers' own education and their own teaching proficiency, may influence teachers' decisions and actions (ibid., p. 445). This cognitive construct, which is composed of teachers' 'concepts, principles, experience, theories, dispositions, beliefs, skills, and actions', is viewed as being malleable due to the contact and collaboration teachers have with others while working in their fields (Diaz Maggioli, 2012, p. 18). Knowledge differs from other forms of cognition, such as beliefs, in that it is seen as being possible to be visibly confirmed (Fives & Buehl, 2012), even though it is also generally characterized as unobservable as well. Despite this, it has proven problematic for researchers who have attempted to distinguish between teacher knowledge and beliefs (e.g. Calderhead, 1996; Hoy, Davis, & Pape, 2006; Verloop et al., 2001). With these aspects of what constitutes teacher knowledge in mind, one can better understand the various types of teacher knowledge that scholars have proposed over the last 30 years. These dimensions are examined below.

3.3.2.1 Dimensions of teacher knowledge

Scholars have been endeavoring to understand the concept of teacher knowledge and what it comprises for several decades, despite some criticisms that it is not beneficial to create distinctive categories of teacher knowledge (Johnson & Golombek, 2011) and that it is rather impossible to separate one grouping from another (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000). While many have attempted to do so, much of the research has proven to be rather repetitive. Therefore, this section will only focus on preeminent studies that have examined teacher knowledge. Shulman (1986) provided one of the foremost conceptualizations of teacher knowledge when he prescribed that teacher knowledge consists of three categories, all of which have been extremely influential in the field of education: content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and curricular knowledge. A year later, Shulman (1987) specified that teacher

knowledge contains additional groupings (general pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of learners, knowledge of educational contexts, and knowledge of educational ends). Table 8 below briefly outlines the four most widely referenced of these categories and key studies that examine these categories.

Table 8: Adapted from Shulman (1987, p. 8): Shulman's (1987) four types of teacher knowledge

Type of knowledge:	Aligns With:
Content knowledge	Calderhead, 1996; Day, 1991; Fang, 1996
General pedagogical knowledge: Wisdom that goes beyond subject-matter knowledge and includes the 'broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization'	Day, 1991; Gatbonton, 1999; Goodwin, 2010; Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013
Curriculum knowledge: An understanding 'of the materials and programs that serve as "tools of the trade" for teachers'	Calderhead, 1996; Fang, 1996; Goodwin, 2010; Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013
Pedagogical content knowledge: Combination of 'content and pedagogy' distinctive to teachers	Andrews, 2007; Calderhead, 1996; Day, 1991; Fang, 1996; Gatbonton, 1999; Goodwin, 2010; Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013; Sanchez, 2013

Shulman's domains of teacher knowledge served as a catalyst for subsequent scholarly research into the dimensions of teacher knowledge. One such work, by Day (1991), provides a review of the concept of teachers' knowledge that aligns with Shulman's in regard to content, pedagogical, and pedagogical content knowledge. Interestingly, this is the first instance of research on teacher knowledge referring specifically to the knowledge of English language teachers. Day (1991) introduced an additional category to the discussion, that of *support knowledge*. Support knowledge can be seen as knowledge that has been accumulated across the many branches that are related to English language teaching and, therefore, shape how educators teach (Day, 1991).

Similarly, Calderhead (1996) further adds to the discussion on teacher knowledge. While he likewise agrees that teacher knowledge consists of content, pedagogical content, and curricular aspects, as outlined by Shulman (1987), Calderhead also explains that three other

types of teacher knowledge should be included: craft, case, and personal practical. Despite the different terminology, craft knowledge closely aligns with Shulman's category of general pedagogy in that they both focus on 'the knowledge that teachers acquire within their own classroom practice' (Calderhead, 1996, p. 717). Additionally, case knowledge is seemingly similar to what Shulman (1987) defines as curriculum knowledge, as both categories stress that teachers call upon a type of knowledge that has formed due to significant instances that influence the practice of teachers (ibid.). Personal practical knowledge, however, appears to be a new type of knowledge. Beattie (1995) suggested this type of wisdom be included in what is considered to be teacher knowledge. Calderhead heeded this call and thus incorporated personal practical knowledge, or how 'teachers' understandings of and approaches to their work are shaped by the personalities of the teachers themselves, their past experiences, and how they view teaching', into his vision of teacher knowledge (1996, pp. 717-718). Another contribution that Calderhead (1996) makes in this article is his comparison of teacher knowledge in regard to the positivist, interpretivist, and critical theoretical epistemologies within education. He explained that positivists interpret knowledge in almost a formulaic manner and that this knowledge, which becomes apparent through research, can be then implemented by teachers (ibid.). Conversely, interpretivists see knowledge as being intertwined with the context teachers instruct in and, therefore, they prioritize the significance that people affix to the social features they experience in their lives (Calderhead, 1996). Lastly, Calderhead clarifies that critical theorists perceive that knowledge highlights relationships of power within the educational field (ibid.).

Moreover, the study by Gatbonton (1999) on ESL teachers' pedagogical knowledge adds to the discussion on teacher knowledge. Again, much of what she states confirms the categories of teacher knowledge that Shulman (1987) outlined, but she does incorporate the dimension of pedagogical knowledge, which is comprised of teachers' perceptions, beliefs, and PADs, that is specific to the ESL field. Goodwin's recent influential study (2010) on teachers' knowledge in relation to teacher preparation and globalization proposes that this knowledge falls into five groupings: personal, contextual, pedagogical, sociological, and social. Goodwin (2010) and Goodwin & Kosnik (2013) state that personal knowledge should be incorporated, as suggested by Calderhead (1996), and also place great importance on the scope of teachers' contextual knowledge at an individual, classroom, national, and global level. As with Shulman (1987), Day (1991), and Gatbonton (1999), Goodwin (2010) and Goodwin & Kosnik (2013) call for pedagogical knowledge. However, she states that she does not believe

that predetermined devices of teaching (i.e. "tricks of the trade") that educators normally rely upon in this domain of knowledge are useful and, therefore, wants the pedagogical knowledge to incorporate 'habits of mind' instead (Goodwin, 2010, p. 25). Goodwin explains that it is more important for educators to develop how to think as teachers and a range of approaches and techniques to use while teaching than mastering prescribed measures (ibid.). Goodwin (2010) also introduces the categories of sociological knowledge, which calls for an appreciation of diversity, and social knowledge, which focuses on cooperation, to be included in any model of teacher knowledge that is used in the multifaceted, globalizing world of today. These five spheres of knowledge that Goodwin proposes are important as they indicate how teaching excellence could be achieved in a global context.

Furthermore, Kumaravadivelu's (2012) discussion of what constitutes *knowledge* and how it differs from *knowing* in the context of language teaching is important to note. Calling on the works of Dewey (1949), Polyani (1958), and Boyles (2006), Kumaravadivelu advocates for the term *knowing* to be used as it can be seen as a progression instead of an outcome. The act of knowing 'is rooted in the personal activity of the knower' and focuses on the processes of 'reflection and action' (Kumaravadivelu, 2012, p. 21). This action and reflection process impacts what comprises the knowledge of educators, which consists of three types of knowledge, particularly in the context of language teachers: professional (i.e. 'the fundamental concepts of language, language learning, and language teaching'), procedural (i.e. 'knowing how to manage classroom learning and teaching'), and personal (e.g. a reflection of 'the individual endeavor of the teacher') (ibid., p. 24, 29, 32).

3.3.2.2 'Expertise' in teaching

It would be remiss to review teacher knowledge and not discuss the perceived differences between who novice and expert teachers are and the concept of teacher expertise, as they are all intertwined. Firstly, it should be noted that there is some debate as to whether expertise is a condition or a process (Tsui, 2005). Both Dreyfus & Dreyfus (1986) and Glaser & Chi (1988), two of the first studies to consider the topic of expertise, depict expertise as being 'a *state* that is reached after years of experience and thousands of hours of practice' (Tsui, 2005, p. 184). Conversely, Bereiter & Scardamalia (1993) state that expertise is a process (Tsui, 2003) and she further disagreed with the proposal of expertise as a state when she suggested that teacher expertise be viewed as '*processes* which mediate or support experts' superior performance', thereby showing that even expert teachers are subject to continual growth

(Tsui, 2005).

The final stage in the continuum of novice to expert teacher is that of the expert. It is difficult to classify what aspects are indicative of expert teachers (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993; Tsui, 2003) as a universally agreed upon standard for distinguishing who is considered to be an expert teacher does not exist (Tsui, 2003). However, several characteristics of expert teachers have been identified. The work by Glaser & Chi (1988), who view expertise as a cognitive construct, first outlined a comprehensive list of the features of expert teachers. They described that expert teachers create and work within a 'specialized domain of knowledge' that is based on their extensive experience (Tsui, 2003, p. 14). This experience also allows experts to develop routines, containing a diverse set of techniques and procedures to promote student learning (Richards, Li, & Tang, 1995), that have proven to be successful and, therefore, help them to save time in order to think about other issues related to their teaching (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993). In addition, expert teachers are seen to have advanced levels of skills in regard to solving problems (Johnson, 2005; Tsui, 2003) that allow them to thoroughly recognize and appreciate difficulties (Tsui, 2003), especially those that may impact on the learning of their students (Farrell & Bennis, 2013). Tsui (2003) further describes that teachers at this stage have skills that have become completely ingrained in who they are. Thus, they can be seen to be always functioning at a top level and have a style of teaching that is perceived as 'effortless and fluid' and is based on their understanding of what has worked well previously (ibid., p. 11). Moreover, Borg (2006) elucidates on these characterizations, particularly in regard to language teachers. He states, similarly to Glaser & Chi (1988) and Tsui (2003), that expert teachers are able to draw upon their acquired knowledge to perceive the likelihood of successful learning within the contexts they teach in, foresee possible issues, and teach in a manner that is respectful of the students and extremely skillful. All of these components can be seen in the teacher educators who took part in the present study; thus, I can confidently describe them as being greatly experienced teachers with a high level of expertise in their field.

Despite the long list of attributes of what may constitute an expert teacher, the existing literature in this area notes that teachers are most likely to be considered experts based on their experience, which is typically seen to be five or more years instructing, or on the selection by some sort of educational governing body (Tsui, 2003). The literature also perceives a couple of problematic areas associated with the concept of expertise. Firstly, the

comparison between novices and experts which is often used in studies is limiting (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993). This is due to the fact that it is difficult to differentiate between the constructs of experience and expertise, which are not the same concept (Tsui, 2003). Experience may be one factor of expertise, but it is not the sole determinant for characterizing a teacher as an expert and, therefore, these types of studies do not aid in furthering our comprehension of the concept of expertise (ibid.). Additionally, Bereiter & Scardamalia (1993) critiqued earlier studies on expertise which place novices against experts as a means to illustrate expertise as being essentially fixed. Secondly, those teachers that are seen as experts may become unaware of potential pedagogical weaknesses (e.g. an outdated reference, a technique that could be more pertinent using modern technology) by merely following their normal practices and thereby these experts may become stagnant in their development as educators (Diaz Maggioli, 2012). Moreover, if the above-listed factors are what are used to generally determine whether a teacher can be considered an expert, how can the development of teachers stop with level of expert? While most of the literature suggests that it does, it seems negligent to assume that expert teachers do not continue to learn and grow as educators. Thus, I am cautious to consider this to be the penultimate level of teacher expertise.

3.3.3 Teacher motivation

The third aspect to be discussed is teacher motivation. Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011) noted that there was a scarcity of research on teacher motivation in regard to the field of second language education. This is perhaps not shocking as prior to this century, the concept of teacher motivation in its own right was in its infancy and had primarily been examined in relation to other topics that affect teachers (e.g. burnout, stress, self-efficacy) (e.g. Anderson & Iwanicki, 1984; Davis & Wilson, 2000; Evans, 2001; Neves de Jesus & Conboy, 2001). Nonetheless, as with the other types of cognition examined above, there have been different conceptualizations as to what motivation is and thus there is a lack of agreement on what teacher motivation consists of. In the most general of senses, motivation can be seen as the reason '*why* people decide to do something, *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity, *how hard* they are going to pursue it' (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 4). But what is teacher motivation comprised of? Teacher motivation is built on four main components: it is intrinsic, influenced by context, is time-based, and unstable (ibid.). Intrinsic motivation, or the desire to do something solely for the gratification of doing it (Deci & Ryan, 2010; Kunter & Holzberger, 2014; Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 1999), is pertinent to the act of teaching as

teaching is related to the yearning to convey information and to educate (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Without experiencing these intrinsic motivating feelings of desire, it is unlikely that teachers would be willing to work in the field of education as it seems to be affected by several adverse factors (e.g. stress, lack of growth, lack of support, bureaucracy, forced policies) (see Section 3.4).

Teacher motivation is also bound by the extrinsic factors of time and context. Teacher motivation is a multifaceted cognitive construct that develops over time (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Gultekin & Erkan, 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2000). As explained by Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011), individuals' actions are 'always embedded in a number of physical, cultural and psychological contexts, which considerably affect a person's cognition, behaviour and achievement' (p. 7). Contextual features that shape teachers' motivation can be broken down into two categories: instructional influences, or the practices and procedures that teachers must undertake, and social and cultural influences, or the individuals and larger groupings of people who affect teachers (ibid.).

In terms of instructional influences that impact upon teacher motivation, Kim & Doyle (1998) drew a correlation between teacher motivation and aspects of the context in which they teach that are viewed negatively (e.g. low salary, lack of opportunities for growth, feelings of being disrespected) and what external governing bodies require teachers to cover and achieve in their classes. Furthermore, studies by both Crookes (1997) and Pennington & Riley (1991) found a connection between teacher motivation and the institutional support they have received. There have also been studies that have shown the influence that social and cultural factors have on teacher motivation. For example, Day, Stobart, Sammons, Kington, Gu, Smees, & Mujtabe (2006) observed that the classroom behavior of students affects teachers' motivation levels while Kiziltepe (2008) showed that the level of student commitment influences teacher motivation. Additionally, studies like Xiao (2014) on distance teachers found that both instructional and social/cultural influences play a role in influencing the motivation of teachers. Another study on the relationship between teacher motivation and context which has proven to be significant is Kubanyiova's (2009) investigation on teachers' future selves within the field of second language education. This study found that, while scholars within the field of motivation argue that the contrast between what teachers would like to happen and what actually occurs weakens teachers' sense of motivation, this divergence actually served as a major impetus for the process of teaching and

learning (Kubanyiova, 2009). Thus, interesting investigations on teacher motivation have begun to be conducted over the past 20 years, but there is room for further research in this field.

One factor that can be seen as related to teacher motivation and has been studied in great depth is the construct of teacher self-efficacy. Emphasis has been placed on self-efficacy as being one of the primary aspects that influences teacher motivation (Bandura, 1994; Thoonen, Sleegers, Oort, Peestma, & Geijsel, 2011). Extensive research has been conducted on teacher self-efficacy over the past quarter of a century (e.g. Klassen & Tze, 2014; Milner, 2002; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) and it continues to be a popular area of investigation. The construct of teacher efficacy was first introduced by Armor, Conroy-Oseguera, Cox, King, McDonnell, Pascal, Pauly, & Zellman (1976); however, the term self-efficacy that researchers are most familiar with today was refined by the social cognitive theorist Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997). According to Allred, Harrison, & O'Connell (2013), social cognitive theory is based on 'a triadic, reciprocal, causal relationship among individuals' social environments, behaviors, and cognition' (p. 212). This relationship between the ways in which people think and behave and how they are influenced by their environments underlies the concept of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is determinant on people's ability to control their own conduct (Mills, 2011) based on the interplay between the influential factors in their professional and private lives (Bandura, 1986; Phan & Locke, 2015) and is, therefore, unique to each person. Thus, teacher self-efficacy refers to the individual beliefs that teachers have concerning their capabilities to productively carry out teaching techniques and practices within their specific classroom environments and the pedagogical choices they make (Dellinger, Bobbett, Olivier, & Ellett, 2008). Therefore, teacher self-efficacy focuses on teachers' beliefs about their ability to complete an action to a specific level.

In one of Bandura's seminal works he explains that the very personal concept of self-efficacy is the belief that people have in their 'capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments' (1977, p. 3). Therefore, the concept of self-efficacy cannot exist without individuals reflecting upon and examining what they are able to do and achieve. Bandura (1997) argues that there are four main sources in which self-efficacy beliefs are formed: enactive mastery, verbal persuasion, vicarious modeling, and physiological arousal. The first main source is enactive mastery which 'allows the individual to acquire cognitive, affective and behavioural tools that lead to a belief that one can

effectively accomplish one's goals' (Arsal, 2014, p. 455). For example, successful instances of teaching may heighten teachers' sense of self-efficacy and may influence the perceived competence of future teaching (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). The converse, negative relationship may also prove to be true in that teacher self-efficacy may decrease after less successful teaching performances (Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). The role of enactive mastery on teacher self-efficacy has also been explored in the institutional context of university level education (e.g. Escobar, Morales, & Klimenko, 2018; Hernandez Jácquez & Cázares, 2018; Leonardo, Murgo, & Sena, 2019; Schoen & Winocur, 1988). For example, Escobar et al. (2018) found that the manner in which Brazilian university-level educators teach and the self-perceived capabilities of these same educators do not always align. Similarly, Hernandez Jácquez & Cázares (2018) looked at how the self-efficacy of university educators and the ways in which they act in the classroom are connected; they delineated that self-efficacy does in fact influence how the educators teach. Moreover, the study by Schoen & Winocur (1988) revealed that the rate of occurrence of particular PADs and the self-efficacy of Australian university educators are related and Cao, Postareff, Lindblom, & Toom (2018) uncovered 'that a student-focused approach to teaching among teacher educators was positively related to their self-efficacy' (p. 479).

The second of Bandura's self-efficacy sources is verbal persuasion. This happens when individuals are able to verbally persuade and promote how others view their capabilities (Moafian & Ghanizaden, 2009). This is pertinent to teachers and teacher educators as they are likely to receive feedback regarding their teaching and this, in turn, may influence their perceived self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). For example, the study by Knoerr (2019) aligns with this as the author unveiled that how university educators view their own teaching plays a direct impact on the educators' self-efficacy; if the educator perceived his/her teaching performance negatively then her self-efficacy was also negatively influenced. Additionally, Leonardo et al. (2019) found that university educators' self-efficacy is influenced by their ability to contemplate what they did while teaching and their ability to recuperate from any perceived errors they made while in the classroom.

The next source is vicarious modeling, which occurs when individuals assess themselves against others who are viewed to have successfully completed an action. Therefore, teachers who endeavor to replicate their behavior on successful models which they have studied may

experience increased confidence and levels of self-efficacy (Arsal, 2014; Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Extensive research has been conducted in regard to vicarious modeling within the institutional context of higher education (e.g. Fives & Looney, 2009; Ismayilova & Klassen, 2019; Landino & Owen, 1988; Postareff, Lindblom-Ylänne, & Nevgi, 2007) and has produced varied results regarding the relationship between the vicarious modeling of university-level educators and their self-efficacy. While some studies have found that university-level educators' qualifications do influence their sense of self-efficacy (e.g. Chang, Lin, & Song, 2011; Hemmings, Kay, Sharp, & Taylor, 2012; Ismayilova & Klassen, 2019; Landino & Owen, 1988), Postareff et al. (2007) found a negative relationship between the achieved qualification level and the self-efficacy of university-level educators. Similarly, other studies did not see a significant correlation between the two factors of qualifications and self-efficacy within this institutional context (e.g. Fives & Looney, 2009; Vera, Salanova, & Martín del Río, 2011). These varied results have prompted scholars, such as Buehl & Beck (2015) and Matos, Iaochite, & Sharp (2021), to call for more research in this area in order to better understand this complex, intertwined relationship within the context of higher education.

Bandura's last source is physiological arousal, which comprises 'psychological and affective states, such as stress, anxiety, and excitement' (Moafian & Ghanizaden, 2009, p. 710). This is relevant to teachers in that when they teach a lesson that they deem as having been successful they may feel positive emotions and more efficacious. However, those teachers who are less efficacious may experience more anxiety and pressure in relation to the concern of being unable to retain classroom control which, in turn, may lead to negative emotions (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). The relationship between psychological arousal and self-efficacy has also been examined within the institutional context of higher education, particularly in regard to university-level educators' stress within the geographical context of Asia (e.g. Han, Yin, Wang, & Bai, 2020; Ismayilova & Klassen, 2019; Yin, Han, & Perron, 2020) and burnout (see Section 3.3.4 for a more detailed analysis). For example, Yin, et al. (2020) found that 'stress from organisational inadequacy and new challenges were negatively associated with [the] self-efficacy' of university-level educators in China (p. 1). This finding aligns with those of Ismayilova & Klassen (2019), who uncovered that university-level educators in Turkey and Azerbaijan have a greater sense of self-efficacy related to teaching than towards research 'due to factors including a systematic lack of institutional support for research, and to the burden of competing demands, especially heavy teaching loads' (p. 63),

as well as the level of motivation their students exhibited in class. Despite these studies, there have not yet been any studies conducted explicitly regarding this connection within the context of higher education in South America.

It is also important to note that self-efficacy is a powerful factor that is based on one's 'self-perception of competence rather than actual level of competence' (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 211). The way in which people perceive their capabilities can become skewed and may cause inaccurate views of their abilities and capabilities. This, in turn, may influence the ways in which people choose to act (ibid.). Examples of this can be seen in Chacon's (2005) and Yilmaz's (2011) studies, which highlight the connection between ESL teachers' perceived level of English and their perceived teaching self-efficacy. Both studies, which were conducted with primary and secondary-level educators but offer insights for the higher education context, reported that a high perceived level of English tended to yield a greater sense of teaching self-efficacy among their participants (Chacon, 2005; Yilmaz, 2011). While the perceived English level of the teachers in both studies may not indicate their real English level, self-perception of their English language level nonetheless played a significant role in how they viewed their capabilities as ESL teachers. Chacon (2005) also provides some evidence as to how teacher self-efficacy can have an impact on teacher behavior, or the course of action they choose to employ, in the classroom. The findings indicate that more efficacious teachers are more apt to engage with strategies focused on communication and grammar than their less efficacious counterparts (ibid.). She further identified that the teachers in her study perceived their ability to motivate their English language students as lacking while being highly self-efficacious in regard to managing the classroom environment, 'designing instructional strategies, providing explanations, and assessing students' (ibid., p. 264). Interestingly, the study from Yilmaz (2011) finds the opposite correlation to be true: teachers feel more efficacious while instructing than in regard to motivating students and managing their classroom. Such findings help to confirm that teacher self-efficacy is individually subjective and has the ability to influence teacher behavior. Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) succinctly explain how and why
self-efficacy has the ability to be so influential:

> Self-efficacy beliefs influence thought patterns and emotions that enable actions in which people expend substantial effort in pursuit of goals, persist in the face of adversity, rebound from temporary setbacks, and exercise some control over events that affect their lives (pp. 207-8).

Thus, self-efficacy is an extremely significant mental construct that has the power to impact

on cognitive (thoughts) and affective (emotions) constructs and, therefore, shape teachers' present and future decisions and actions within their personal and professional lives. As my initial research design focused on teacher educator self-efficacy and its relations to their PADs, aspects of motivation and self-efficacy can be seen as internal factors that influence the PADs of the teacher educators in the present study. This is discussed in more detail in Chapter Five.

3.3.4 Teacher emotions

The final aspect to be discussed is teacher emotions. Teaching is a social procedure that is profoundly influenced by emotional experiences (Hargraves, 1998) and the teachers' perceptions of their ability to uphold norms and meet set objectives (Schutz, Hong, Cross, & Osbon, 2006). This aspect of the inner lives of teacher educators featured prominently in the present study and is discussed in more detail in Chapters Five and Six. The act of teaching encompasses the concept of *emotional labor* which is 'the effort, planning, and control teachers need to express organizationally desired emotions during interpersonal transactions' (Schutz & Zembylas, 2009, p. 3). According to Zembylas (2005), one of the foremost sources on teacher emotions, the emotions that teachers experience are expansive and habitual and can be seen as 'serv[ing] specific purposes in the process of creating and negotiating reality' (p. 937). Emotions and reason cannot be separated as a person's ability to reason is contingent on his/her emotions (Zembylas, 2003; O'Connor, 2008). Therefore, emotional knowledge (i.e. 'a teacher's knowledge about/from his or her emotional experiences with respect to one's self, others…, and the wider social and political context in which teaching and learning takes place') must be considered when teachers are investigated (Zembylas, 2007, p. 356). Teachers experience a multitude of emotions in reaction to many aspects which include, but are not limited to, exchanges and collaboration with students and other stakeholders (e.g. Frenzel, Goetz, Lüdtke, Pekrun, & Sutton, 2009; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Split, Koomen, & Thijs, 2011; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003), teachers' objectives (e.g. Hannula, 2006; Hargreaves, 2001; Mevarech & Maskit, 2015; Nias, 1996), and stress (e.g. Jennett, Harris, & Mesibov, 2003; Kyriacou, 2001; Kieschke & Schaarschmidt, 2008; Woolfolk Hoy, 2008). For example, in regard to teachers' emotions and the collaboration with stakeholders and students, Frenzel et al. (2009) found that there is a definite association between teachers' and students' respective levels of satisfaction and Split et al. (2011) examined the relationships between teachers and students and how these connections have the ability to affect teachers both personally and professionally. Concerning the objectives of

teachers, Hannula (2006) focused on the regulation of motivation and its connection to emotions in the context of mathematics teaching while the studies by Kyriacou (2001) and Kiescheke & Schaarschmidt (2008) examined how the stress teachers experience and their emotions are interconnected.

One such emotion is stress in that it plays an active role in impacting teachers' workloads and their PADs. As explained by Woolfolk Hoy (2008), many individuals enter the educational field out of a genuine desire to help students learn. However, many find that 'the realities of teaching can be disheartening, especially for those whose motivations are altruistic' and, therefore, they tend to encounter stress (ibid., p. 497). Stress, which often leads to burnout, has been perceived to be persistent and long-lasting (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). According to Jennett et al. (2003), stress is ubiquitous and may be caused by numerous reasons, such as student behavior, issues with parents, lack of support by colleagues and institutions, or externally imposed changes. While stress affects the entire teacher population, Kieschke & Schaarschimidt (2008) found that dedicated educators who have high standards do not have a strong ability to emotionally self-regulate and are seen to be more susceptible to stress than others. Stress and factors leading to stress, such as low self-efficacy (e.g. Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007, 2010), issues with students and/or colleagues (e.g. Farrell, 2001; Kagan, 1992; Split et al., 2011; Yoon, 2002), insufficient assistance (e.g. Cowie, 2011; Kruger, 1997; Murray-Harvey, Slee, Lawson, Silins, Banfield, & Russell, 2000; Noom-Ura, 2013), and anxiety (e.g. Anderson, Levison, Barker, & Kiewra, 1999; Coates & Thoreson, 1976; Ferguson, Frost, & Hall, 2012; Halet & Sanchez, 2017), have been found to affect the intrinsic motivation levels of teachers negatively (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Ehrman & Dörnyei (1998) outline several PADs which occur, albeit perhaps unintentionally, when teachers have traditionally attempted to cope with the stress and anxiety that they encounter. Firstly, they may be disposed to adopt a task-based mentality, which they tend to habitually rely upon, and divide the relationship between themselves and their students so they will not have to work with their learners in every aspect of the learning process. Secondly, teachers experiencing stress are inclined to become detached and pessimistic and, therefore, may depersonalize their learners. Lastly, as according to Ehrman & Dörnyei (1998), they may be more comfortable continuing with their existing teaching behaviors and thus may be less willing to embrace change. While these coping strategies/PADs may prove to be helpful in alleviating teacher stress, they unfortunately do not address the emotional labor included in the act of teaching and the underlying causes of stress and it may not only continue to affect

teachers' enjoyment of their profession, and their students' learning, but may also grow in strength. If left unchecked, the stress that teachers face may turn into 'job dissatisfaction, health symptoms and emotional exhaustion' (Schutz & Zembylas, 2009, p. 3) and teacher burnout (Jennett et al., 2003).

Teacher burnout has been described by multiple scholars (e.g. Ghanizadeh & Royaei, 2015; Jennett et al., 2003; Maslach, 1993; Milatz, Lüftenegger, & Schober, 2015; Mukundan & Khandehroo, 2010; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2011; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007, 2010, 2011), often in relation to other constructs. For the purposes of this study, teacher burnout is defined as a potentially detrimental mental and emotional issue that arises from continuous stress within the professional lives of teachers. Burnout occurs when teachers feel that the adverse aspects of being an educator have become greater than those that are favorable (Milatz et al., 2015). At this point, they may find their profession to be 'unpleasant, unfulfilling and unrewarding' (ibid., p. 2). Manifestations of burnout can show in various ways, such as 'negative job attitudes, illness-related consequences, and low organizational performance' (ibid.), all of which may affect their PADs, but burnout is generally marked by feeling emotionally exhausted (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Thus, teachers suffer greatly when experiencing burnout. However, this burnout may also impact student learning as it has been linked to lower levels of student attainment and less quality education (Milatz et al., 2015).

One construct that teacher burnout has frequently been examined in relation to is teacher self-efficacy (c.f. Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Chwalisz, Altmaier, & Russell, 1992; Khani & Mirzaee, 2015; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007, 2010). Findings range from showing that teacher burnout and self-efficacy are somewhat interconnected (Chwalisz et al., 1992; Evers, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2002; Friedman & Farber, 1992) to being strongly correlated (i.e. that teachers with lower self-efficacy levels are more likely to experience burnout) (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). The contextual factor of classroom management (i.e. the ability to supervise students and the classroom so that the teachers can accomplish their learning goals (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000)), including the ability to deal with student behavior, is another aspect that is linked to teacher self-efficacy and affects teachers' PADs. Teacher self-efficacy has been seen as connected to the emotions which teachers have that are associated with classroom management, and this connection is in turn related to the emotional stress and burnout that teachers face (ibid.). Brouwers & Tomic (2000) explained that teachers with lower levels of self-efficacy concerning their PADs in relation to their classroom management skills are

more prone to think about their students negatively, thereby amplifying the emotional stress they face within their working environment and creating a conducive setting for burnout. Additional studies have shown that there is a relationship between student misbehavior and teacher anxiety (Hart, 1987) and student behavior and teacher burnout (Cowie, 2011; Evers, Tomic, & Brouwers, 2004; Sutton, 2004).

Furthermore, teacher burnout has been investigated in respect to teachers' emotion of job satisfaction. Both Skaalvik & Skaalvik (2009) and Skaalvik & Skaalvik (2010) observed that the burnout, and the aspects of exhaustion, that some teachers undergo is explicitly linked to their job satisfaction. While there is not one set definition for what constitutes job satisfaction, Skaalvik & Skaalvik (2017a) conceptualize teacher job satisfaction as the perceived emotional response teachers have to their position as an educator. The job satisfaction of teachers has been shown to be linked to multiple further emotional aspects: the support and coping mechanisms offered by colleagues and the institute in which they work (e.g. Halet & Sanchez, 2017; Küçükoğlu, 2014), the self-efficacy and independence teachers perceive themselves as having (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017b), the relationships teachers have with their students (e.g. Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Klassen, Perry, & Frenzel, 2012; Van den Berg, 2002), the passions teachers have for their work (e.g. Carbonneau, Vallerand, Fernet, & Guay, 2008; Chen, 2007; Kunter, Frenzel, Nagy, Baumert, & Pekrun, 2011), and ultimately burnout (e.g. Liu & Onwuegbuzie, 2012; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010) or the resilience to remain within the position (e.g. Beltman, Mansfield, & Price, 2011; Borman & Dowling, 2008; Cochran-Smith, 2004; Howard & Johnson, 2004; Ingersoll, 2001; Weiss, 1999). These emotions are considerably intertwined and have the ability to greatly influence the PADs of teachers and teacher educators. Thus, the existing literature provides ample evidence of how internal factors can influence the practice of teacher educators. The following section (3.3) examines external, contextual factors that could influence teacher educators' practice in the classroom environment.

3.4 External factors influencing teacher practices

This section examines how contextual or environmental factors influence the practices of teachers and teacher educators. This connection between contextual restraints and the 'discrepancies between behaviour and beliefs' of teachers has been widely documented (Basturkmen et al., 2004, p. 268). In the field of language education, studies on external factors and their capacity to impact teachers' practices on different levels have been

conducted (e.g. Andrews, 2003; Borg, 2003, 2006; Buehl & Beck, 2015; Fives & Gill, 2015; Li & Walsh, 2011; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Sanchez & Borg, 2014). External factors are, as explained by Borg (2003), 'the social, psychological and environmental realities of the school and classroom' which are composed of such elements as 'parents, principals' requirements, the school, society, curriculum mandates, classroom and school layout, school policies, colleagues, standardised tests and the availability of resources' (Borg, 2003, p. 94). These factors have proven to be important because, as according to Borg (2006), external factors have the ability to influence teachers' cognitions and this intersection between cognitions and external factors molds the instruction of teachers and their PADs. Several investigations (e.g. Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2006; Fives & Gill, 2015) have shown that have shown that teachers' perceptions of the contextual factors impact upon the PADs they choose to implement and thereby also their acknowledged professional teaching beliefs. While I believe that Borg's conception that external factors can affect teachers' practice is accurate, I find Sanchez's (2010) notion of *teacher constructed context* (TCC) to be particularly intriguing in that this concept stresses the personal nature of contextual factors and places importance on the perceptions teachers have of contextual factors and how these perceptions influence their PADs. Another study that highlighted TCC is Sanchez & Borg (2014) in that they maintained that it is completely possible for teachers to be affected by the same environmental factors in different manners, and to have different conceptions of how they were affected while working within the same context. The concept of TCC greatly influenced this present investigation and thus, even though my study is categorizing contextual factors as being external, it is important to note that these same factors could be seen as being internal since I was truly interested in the participants' perceptions of these contextual, environmental factors and how they influenced the teacher educators' PADs (Tleuov, 2016).

The existing literature has shown that context operates on different levels (e.g. Andrews, 2003; Buehl & Beck, 2015). Tleuov (2016) provides an excellent example of how to coalesce the different paradigms outlining the contextual levels proposed by Andrews (2003) and Buehl & Beck (2015). Andrews (2003) suggests that there are two contextual levels: the *macro* context that is derived from factors such as the teaching materials, assessments, the course outline, the attitudes and personalities of the students, and the aspirations of the students' parents and the *micro* context of the environment in which teachers educate. Buehl & Beck (2015) further define the planes of context and propose that there are five contextual levels - *classroom-level*, *school-level*, *national-level*, *state-level*, and *district-level*. Tleuov

explains that contextual levels occur on three main planes: 'micro context (classroom-level factors), meso context (institutional-level factors and other social influences such as parents, family, etc.), and macro context (district-, state/region-, national-level factors)' (Tleuov, 2016, p. 33). I find Tleuov's explanation to be very clear and concise and, therefore, I have chosen to adopt his model to analyze the different contextual levels encompassed in the present study. I will review studies that show that contextual factors operate on a micro-level first, followed by studies where the context functions on a meso- level, and finally those studies that reveal how contextual factors work on a macro-level. It is important to note that many of the studies which are reviewed in the next three sections take place in different contextual environments (e.g. elementary, secondary) than the present study. I believe that it is imperative to review these studies nevertheless as they still offer useful insights into the different levels of contextual factors (e.g. micro, meso, macro) that may manifest in this project. Also, this section of the review helps to position the present study and show that the contextual area in which the project took place has been understudied so far.

3.4.1 Micro-level contextual influences

According to Buehl & Beck (2015) and Phipps & Borg (2009), micro-level or classroom-level contextual factors that have the ability to influence the belief systems and practices of both in-service and pre-service teachers include, but are not limited to, the capability of the students (e.g. Savasci & Berlin, 2012), the mindset and outlook of the students (e.g. Bullock, 2010; Southerland, Gallard, & Callihan, 2008), the role of classroom management (e.g. Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Hart, 1987; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Savasci & Berlin, 2012; Teague, Anfara, Wilson, Gaines, & Beaves, 2012), and the size of the class (e.g. Chen, 2008; Dooley & Assaf, 2009; Uzuntiryaki, Boz, Kirbulut, & Bektas, 2010). For example, in regard to the perceived capability of students, Savasci & Berlin (2012) found that the level of ability and behavior of the students played a significant role in whether the teachers in their study were able to act out their beliefs while teaching. Other scholars have examined how the micro-level contextual factor of the students' mindset and attitude has the ability to affect teachers' practices. Southerland et al. (2008) studied how the outlook of students, particularly that which is negative, impacted the choice of PADs enacted by primary and secondary school science teachers. Likewise, Bullock (2010) found that 'while behavioural beliefs impacted positively on teachers' intentions,' beliefs regarding 'control…tended to obstruct [the] implementation' of PADs while teaching young learners (p. 121).

Another area of micro-level contextual factors that has been investigated regarding its role in impacting the practice of educators is classroom management. Teague et al. (2012) found that there was a disconnect between the utilized practices and stated beliefs of teachers with respect to the choice of instructional approaches enacted by middle school teachers in the USA. They attributed this tension primarily to issues of classroom management (e.g. disobedience of students). This finding aligns with those documented in Sutton, Mudrey-Camino, & Knight (2009) and Cowie (2011) about the emotional effects of how student misbehavior impacted their PADs. The participants in Sutton et al.'s (2009) study described that they tended to feel negative emotions when their students misbehaved while the participants in Cowie's (2011) study reported feeling angry for a short period of time when their students acted poorly in class. These studies further support the investigation by Spada & Massey (1992), which outlined differentiations in whether micro-level contextual factors affected the PADs implemented by teachers: teachers who experienced good behavior on the part of their students were able to enact PADs that aligned with what they were taught during their teacher education programs, while teachers who perceived their students to have behavioral issues were not able to do so.

Additionally, Brouwers & Tomic (2000) drew a connection between secondary school teachers' perceived self-efficacy beliefs in obtaining their set instructional objectives and their classroom management. They found that the self-efficacy that teachers had about their classroom management skills was directly related to the amount of emotional stress and burnout they experienced. Similarly, Evers, Tomic, & Brouwers (2004) found that 'disruptive student behaviour and the teachers' competence to cope with it' were directly interconnected to the burnout that these teachers experienced (p. 144). Scholars have also explored the micro-level contextual factor of class size in relation to teachers' practices. Chen (2008), Dooley & Assaf (2009), and Uzuntiryaki et al. (2010) all note that the size of the class being taught has the ability to constrain the use of pedagogical practices which teachers consider practical and efficient and those practices that align with their belief systems.

Thus, the studies examined above collectively show that micro-level contextual factors have the ability to significantly affect the beliefs and praxis of teachers. Factors such as student capability, student outlook, classroom management, and class size have been shown to influence the practice of educators and the PADs they utilize while teaching in various contexts. It is therefore possible to infer that these micro-level contextual factors may play a

role in affecting the participants in the current research project. The following section examines the meso-level contextual factors that also have the capacity to alter the dynamic connection between teachers' beliefs and practices.

3.4.2 Meso-level contextual influences

The meso-level contextual factors, or 'factors that are external to the classroom, but that have immediate influence upon it' (Fulmer, Lee, & Tan., 2015, p. 484), that the existing literature has shown to be capable of influencing teachers' beliefs and thereby affecting teachers' PADs are comprised of the resources that are accessible at the school-level and the social support of stakeholders such as colleagues, parents, and school administration (Buehl & Beck, 2015; Tleuov, 2016). For instance, Potari & Georgiadou-Kabouridis (2009) reported that the relationship between the beliefs developed during the teacher education process and the PADs employed in the classroom by a Greek primary school educator was affected to some extent by the issues she encountered in the contextual environment of the school in which she worked. These findings support those reported by Burns (1996), who described how the perceived contextual needs of the organization in which her participant taught had the ability to affect her participant's content and lesson planning PADs.

Performance goals and institutional stressors have also been shown to influence the practices of educators at the meso-contextual level. For example, Ciani, Summers, & Easter (2008) suggested that there is a relationship between the performance goals of schools, the collective sense of teacher self-efficacy, and the PADs implemented in class by high school teachers in the Midwestern USA. They found that 'teachers in highly performance-oriented schools reported significantly less adaptive motivational beliefs, lower community, and more performance-oriented instruction than teachers in a low performance-oriented school' (p. 533). Institutional stress and feeling overworked have also been examined. McMullen (1997) established that there was inconsistency between the stated beliefs regarding developmentally appropriate practices of preschool and primary school educators and the actual PADs they engaged in while teaching. The participants in this study who were found to show inconsistency between their beliefs and practices believed that this discrepancy was due to 'a variety of environmental/work-related stresses or institutional barriers' (p. 216). Additionally, Crookes & Arakaki (1999) identified that feelings of being overworked due to an excessive amount of teaching hours (i.e. approximately 50 hours per week) experienced by ESL teachers on an intensive program in the USA impacted upon the participants' PADs.

Further meso-level contextual factors that have been reported to affect the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices include the perceived lack of resources and support. Southerland et al. (2011) explored the barriers that science teachers perceived to preclude themselves from utilizing PADs that were consistent with their stated beliefs. The authors concluded that infrastructure (i.e. the 'goals and means of the wider system' (p. 2195) and the unequitable distribution of valuable means such as 'funding, equipment and materials') proved to be a pronounced barrier (p. 2196). These findings align with those reported by Chen (2008), who found that the enactment of Taiwanese high school teachers' beliefs regarding the usage of technology in their classes was affected by the meso-level contextual factors of 'lack of access to computers and software, insufficient time to plan instruction, and inadequate technical and administrative support' (p. 70). This study aligns with research conducted by Jorgensen, Grootenboer, Niesche, & Lerman (2010), which uncovered that mathematics teachers in a remote Australian Indigenous region perceived a lack of necessary teaching resources as having the ability to influence the relationship between their beliefs and PADs. Furthermore, Rentzou & Sakellariou (2011) postulated that the incongruity between the beliefs and the practices regarding developmentally appropriate principles of Greek pre-service teachers was significantly due to the participants feeling 'unsupported by parents, colleagues and administrators' (pp. 1056-1057).

Based on collective analysis, the studies reviewed in this section reveal that meso-level contextual factors are able to influence the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. These studies have demonstrated that school-level as school management, fellow teachers, and parents of students can affect teachers' use of PADs while instructing and therefore, may also become apparent in and contribute to the present study. Macro-level contextual factors, which have similarly been shown to influence the complex relationship between the beliefs and practices of teachers, are assessed in the next section.

3.4.3 Macro-level contextual influences

The macro-level contextual factors that have been documented as being able to affect the relationship between the beliefs and the PADs of teachers consist of such influences as the 'educational policies and curricular standards' that have been adopted at the district, state, or national level (Buehl & Beck, 2015, p. 78). At the national level, several studies have been conducted which illustrate how macro-level contextual factors can impact on the beliefs and practices of educators. One of the main factors is national examinations. Lim & Chai (2008)

found that primary school teachers from Singapore had a disconnect between their stated teaching beliefs, namely constructivism, and their actual PADs (i.e. 'information acquisition and regurgitation'), which they attributed to the necessity to cover all of the prescribed material on the schools' syllabi in order to prepare the students for their final year, national exam (i.e. Primary School Leaving Examination) (Lim & Chau, 2008, p. 807). Similarly, Dooley & Assaf (2009) revealed that there was a connection between the beliefs and practices of primary school teachers of language arts in the USA as the participants 'respond[ed] to an influx of high-stakes tests, including district-mandated benchmark testing systems' (p. 354). Moreover, Phipps & Borg (2009) noted that, in addition to the micro-level contextual factors discussed above, several macro-level contextual factors 'such as a prescribed curriculum, time constraints, and high-stakes examinations' had the power to influence whether the PADs enacted in class by university teachers in Turkey closely aligned with their stated beliefs (p. 281). Rentzou & Sakellariou (2011) found that, in addition to the meso-level factors mentioned above, the participants in their study noted that they felt that the inharmonious relationship between their beliefs and PADs was primarily due to the Greek state-level directives.

Another macro-level contextual factor that has been shown to influence teachers' beliefs and practices is national linguistic and cultural policies. In 2009, Valdiviezo reported that a nationally imposed policy of bilingual intercultural education that was meant to invigorate the culture and language of the indigenous population in Peru had the opposite effect on the teacher-participants in the study. The author explains that the school environment 'remained a space of exclusion of indigenous languages and cultures' through the implementation of bilingual intercultural education and, thus, this macro-level contextual factor did impact upon the relationship between teachers' beliefs, specifically in regard to what interculturality entailed, and the enacted PADs in this context (p. 61). Later studies found similar results (Cincotta-Sigi, 2011; Tan, 2011). For example, Cincotta-Sigi (2011) examined how one primary school teacher struggled to implement PADs that aligned with his beliefs about language practices (i.e. use of Lao or the students' mother tongue) due to the nationwide decree by the Laotian government that all education is to be conducted in Lao despite the very diverse cultural and linguistic of the country. Additionally, Tan (2011) illustrated that the 'implementation of a language of instruction policy in Malaysia which made English the medium for mathematics and science instruction' affected not only the beliefs of secondary-level math and science teachers but also their choice of PADs while teaching (p. 325).

While many studies have been conducted at the national level, some research has also shown that macro-level contextual factors at the state level can influence the relationship between the beliefs and practices of educators. In 2008, de Jong examined the perspectives and interpretations of primary school teachers in relation to a 'top-down English-only state law' in Massachusetts. This study also investigated how such macro-level contextual factors as this state-level regulation influenced the PADs of the participants: they were often found to 'negotiate … contradictory policy discourses in their daily practices' (p. 350). In the context of Spain, Verjano-Chicote (2017) identified that the belief-practice relationship of primary school level *content and language integrated learning* (CLIL) teachers was influenced by a law implemented by the Catalonian government in 1999. The participants, in general, asserted that they approved of the law, but they also expressed that a 'lack of materials and resources' (i.e. meso-level) on a broad level made it challenging for their beliefs regarding CLIL to always align with their actual practices.

As with the aforementioned micro- and meso-level factors, the studies above collectively indicate that macro-level factors, such as educational rules implemented at the local, state/provincial, or national levels, also have the ability to affect the beliefs and practices of teachers. This relationship is important to note as local, provincial, and/or national regulations may be shown to influence the PADs of the Argentinian teacher educators who took part in the present study. Moreover, it is important to acknowledge and discuss that these three different levels may be seen as overlapping when they influence teachers and their practice, and may, in turn, bolster one another. Some of the studies reviewed above have found that there are examples where different levels of factors appear to intersect and reinforce each other regarding teachers, their beliefs, and their PADs (e.g. the micro-level factors of classroom management, expectations of the students, ability of the students, & reactivity of the students and the macro-level factors of limitations of time, having a set curriculum, and important national-level tests; the micro-level factor of class size and the meso-level factor of access issues to technology, a lack of institutional assistance, and unsatisfactory planning time). For example, a teacher's beliefs about class size may influence how she feels about having sufficient time to plan and vice versa; if a teacher believes that larger class sizes are less ideal for teaching then she may feel that she needs more time to prepare satisfactorily for such a large class despite if she had adequate time for preparation thus illustrating the complex nature of how these different levels of factors are intertwined. Additionally, there are instances where factors at different levels can be seen as contradicting

each other (e.g. the micro-level factor of student motivation and the macro-level factor of state-level examinations which may serve to further demotivate students). In such cases of incongruence, teachers may experience tensions while assessing which factor to react to, and in what order, or how to perform in a way where both levels of factors may be directly or indirectly addressed.

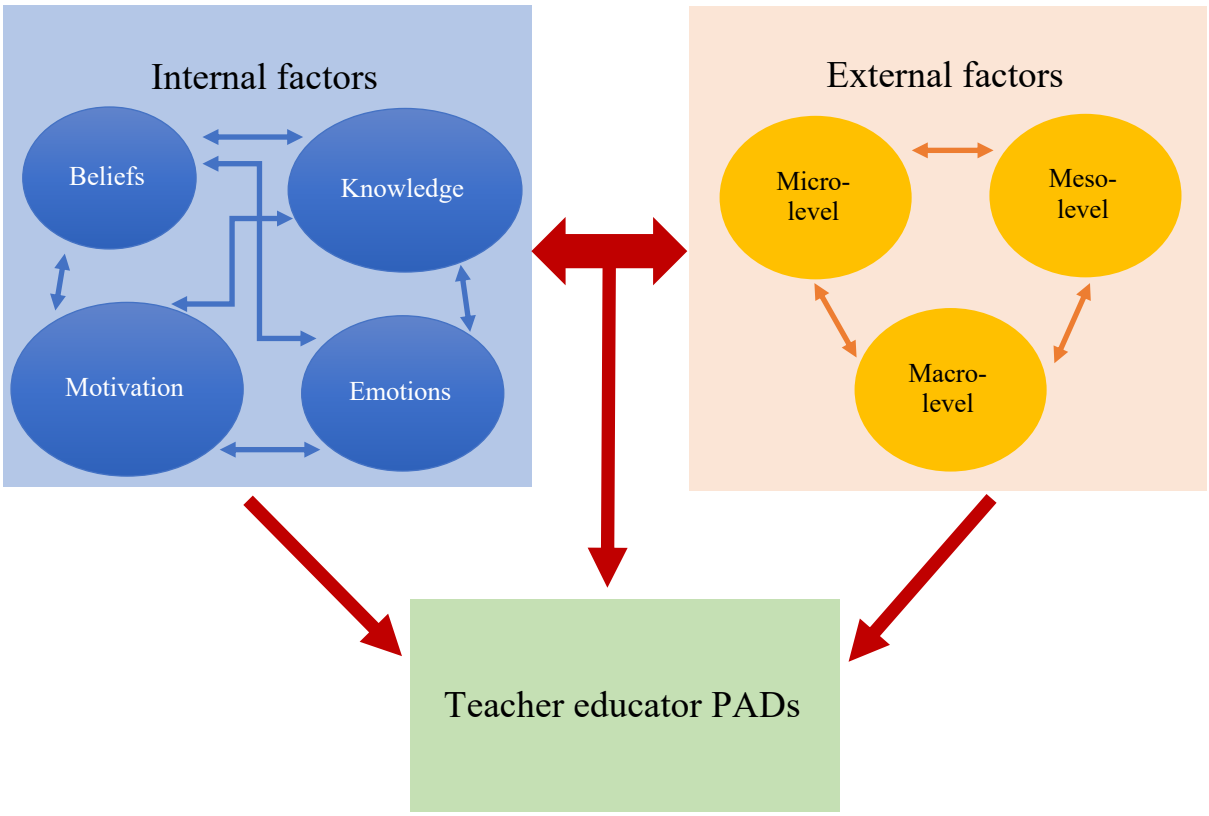
3.5 Summary

Throughout this chapter, I have critically engaged with the existing literature in order to both highlight the gaps that exist in the canon in relation to the foci of the present study and to position it within the research that has previously been conducted. By completing this literature review, I have been able to establish that there is a lack of research on the complex, intertwined relationship between the internal and external factors that teacher educators perceive as being impactful on their usage of PADs in the context of an English as a foreign language undergraduate program in Argentina. This study was guided by the foci, which developed organically through my reading, my discussions with my supervisor, and my work with my participants, and is encompassed in my three research questions. The research questions for the current study are as follows:

RQ1: What PADs do teacher educators engage in?
RQ2: What internal and external factors do teacher educators refer to in their rationales for their PADs?
RQ3: What role do these factors play in influencing their PADs?

My conceptual framework for this study is shown below in Figure 1 on the following page. The blue box on the left of the figure illustrates the perceived internal factors, such as beliefs, knowledge, motivation, and emotions, while the orange box on the right represents the perceived contextual factors (e.g. micro-level, meso-level, and macro-level). Both boxes, and the factors they are composed of, have the ability to influence the teacher educators' perspectives of one another. Moreover, all these factors intertwine and interact to influence the PADs of the teacher educators in this study (the green box) and will be discussed in great detail in the Findings and Discussion chapters (Five and Six).

Figure 1: Adapted from Sanchez's (2010), Buehl & Beck's (2015), and Csernus' (2018) models: Conceptual model of how internal and external factors influence teacher educators' PADs



Chapter Four: Research methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology that was used in this social constructivist research project. The first section (4.2) describes the overall methodological design used in this study: qualitative research design and its rationale. Additionally, this section addresses the ontological and epistemological positions of this research project. The next section (4.3), which provides information about the research tradition, case study with ethnographic elements, that was used in the study. The third section (4.4) examines the methods of data collection that I have chosen to use. The multi-method approach is discussed as well as the three stages of data collection. The pilot study is also explained (4.4.4) - regarding the context and participant (4.4.4.1), the data collection procedure (4.4.4.2), and the impact on the data collection plans (4.4.4.3) - which was conducted prior to the main data collection. The fourth section describes the sampling criteria (4.5.1) that was applied to this study and the participants (4.5.2 – 4.5.4) recruited to take part in this research project. The fifth section explains how the data collected was analyzed (4.6), the sixth section discusses the trustworthiness and authenticity of this study (4.7), and the seventh section outlines the ethical considerations of this project (4.8). The last section provides a conclusion to this chapter (4.9).

4.2 Research design and associated philosophical positions

This section provides information on the qualitative research design and interpretive framework and philosophical positions that I adopted for this study and is comprised of two main parts: the ontological position and the epistemological position (see Table 9 below for a visual representation of my interpretive framework for this study). While there is no universally recognized definition of what constitutes a qualitative approach to research (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994), many scholars have delineated significant characteristics that are pertinent to this research design. Bryman (2008) explains that qualitative research tends to be inductive, to have a post-positivist ontology, and to be constructionist epistemologically. Moreover, Denzin and Lincoln (2005) describe qualitative researchers as trying to 'study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of meanings people bring to them' (p. 3). This is precisely what my study attempted to do: to explore naturally occurring phenomena, and the meaning attached to them by the

participants, that my participants experienced within a familiar context.

Table 9: Interpretive framework of this study

Interpretive Framework	Ontology	Epistemology
Social constructivism	Constructivism	Subjectivism

This research project sought to investigate the inner lives of teacher educators, specifically the relationship between the internal and external factors that influenced their PADs in the context of higher education in Argentina, and how these participants understood the world in which they lived and worked (Fusch, Fusch, & Ness, 2017). Adopting a qualitative research design was therefore suitable for my project for several reasons. Firstly, qualitative research can be seen as being people-orientated (Bell, 2005; Richards, 2003), as is my study, and tends to emphasize the socially constructed aspects of people's lives (Holliday, 2002; Richards, 2003). Additionally, qualitative research methods let investigators examine 'the inner experience of participants, to determine how meanings are formed through and in culture, and to discover rather than test variables' (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 12). Secondly, my research questions were postulated based on my interest in studying the above-mentioned relationship and I did not conduct this project in order to accept or reject a preconceived hypothesis (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Creswell, 2003). Lastly, I agree with Cohen et al.'s (2011) claim that 'the social and educational world is a messy place, full of contradictions, richness, complexity, connectedness, conjunctions and disjunctions' (p. 219). It is partially due to these features that I have chosen to use a qualitative research design for this project as I believe that the connection between internal and external factors and teacher educators' PADs is nuanced, complex, and multidimensional, and therefore should not be oversimplified by using a research methodology that does not address these factors. Therefore, in order to understand these complex phenomena (i.e. the relationship between the internal and external factors and teacher educators' PADs) multiple qualitative data collection instruments were utilized so as to produce rich data (Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005): background interviews, classroom observations, fieldnotes, semi-structured stimulated recall interviews, and follow-up interviews (see Section 4.4).

The ontological perspective, or what can be known about reality (Guba & Lincoln, 1994), that I adopted in this study is that of *constructionism*/*constructivism* (Bryman, 2008; Guba,

1990; Richards, 2003). I view myself as having a constructivist position in that I did not undertake my study with preconceived theories but instead wanted to 'inductively develop a theory or pattern of meaning' with my participants (Creswell, 2003: p. 9). A constructivist ontology is one that is *relativist* (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005) in nature and views reality as having been co-created socially (Mertens, 2005; Richards, 2003) and as being continuously amended (Bryman, 2008). I adhered to this position primarily because I believe that reality exists in multiple, rich forms, not just how I viewed reality as the researcher, and wanted the reality in my study to be socially constructed between the participants and myself (Richards, 2003). I therefore endeavored to show my understanding of my participants' views of their realities in relation to this study. The epistemological stance, or what the connection is 'between the knower … and the known' (Guba, 1990, p. 18), that I adhered to in this study is that of *subjectivism* (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Guba, 1990). A subjectivist epistemology is one in which the realities of the individuals in the study are socially intertwined, influencing each other, and thus the findings of the respective project are 'literally created' (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 111).

I wanted to adopt an *emic* (i.e. an insider) perspective while investigating the phenomena in this study (Burns, 1999). However, I believe that I fell somewhere in the middle (i.e. *inbetweener* perspective) (Milligan, 2016) of the 'multidimensional, continuous and inconclusive' emic - etic (insider - outsider) continuum (Shah, 2004, p. 556): I am not Argentinian, nor do I have as many years of experience as my participants, but I do share the culture of being a female language educator. Researchers have explained that investigators often fall in between the extremes of being considered an insider or an outsider (e.g. Hellawell, 2006; McNess, Arthur, & Crossley, 2015; Merriam, Johnson-Bailey, Lee, Kee, Ntseane, & Muhamad, 2001) and that having 'empathy, trying to understand the other person, or the other context' is more important than where one falls on the insider-outsider continuum (Hellawell, 2006, p. 489). In order to have such empathy, researchers must be aware of how aspects such as 'ethnicity, language, gender, age, academic status and personal and professional [status]' shape how they see and understand their worlds (McNess et al., 2015, p. 311). I was therefore very mindful that my own personal experiences, beliefs, perceptions, motivations, and emotions played a role (Denscombe, 2010; McNess et al., 2015), albeit inadvertently, in how I interacted with the participants and how I understood and interpreted (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992) the information the participants provided me with and how we co-constructed knowledge (Talmy, 2011). I did not embark on this project in

order to provide criticism of my participants' PADs or their understandings of why they chose to engage in each PAD, but rather to offer greater depth and understanding of the topics being investigated (Sanchez, 2010). Thus, the findings in my study may be seen as having been processed double hermeneutically (Giddens, 1984) and were constantly being co-constructed between the participants and myself (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

One issue that is important to note is that I requested that the autobiographical, stimulated recall, and follow-up interviews be conducted in English as my level of Spanish was not at a suitable level for academic research (see Section 7.3 for limitations to this study). This is a sensitive topic as language is not unbiased (Kamler & Threadgold, 2003) but rather is imbued with culture (Shah, 2004) and while it is possible to translate from one language to another, it is not possible to 'translate culture' (González y González & Lincoln, 2006, p. 2) or the 'subtle nuances and cultural connotations' encompassed in language (Shklarov, 2007, p. 531). Additionally, issues of power are also raised in relation to this decision. Scholars have noted that the process of face-to-face interviewing is loaded with questions of power (Chen, 2011; Merriam et al., 2001; Milligan, 2016; Shah, 2004) but that this issue becomes even more pronounced when the researcher and participants have different L1s and when interviews are not conducted in the mother tongue (L1) of the participants (Chen, 2011). In making this logistical decision I did not set out to create feelings of marginalization amongst my participants and thereby attempted to reduce any issues through empathy and understanding, as suggested by Hellawell (2006).

4.3 Research tradition and how the project is situated: Case study

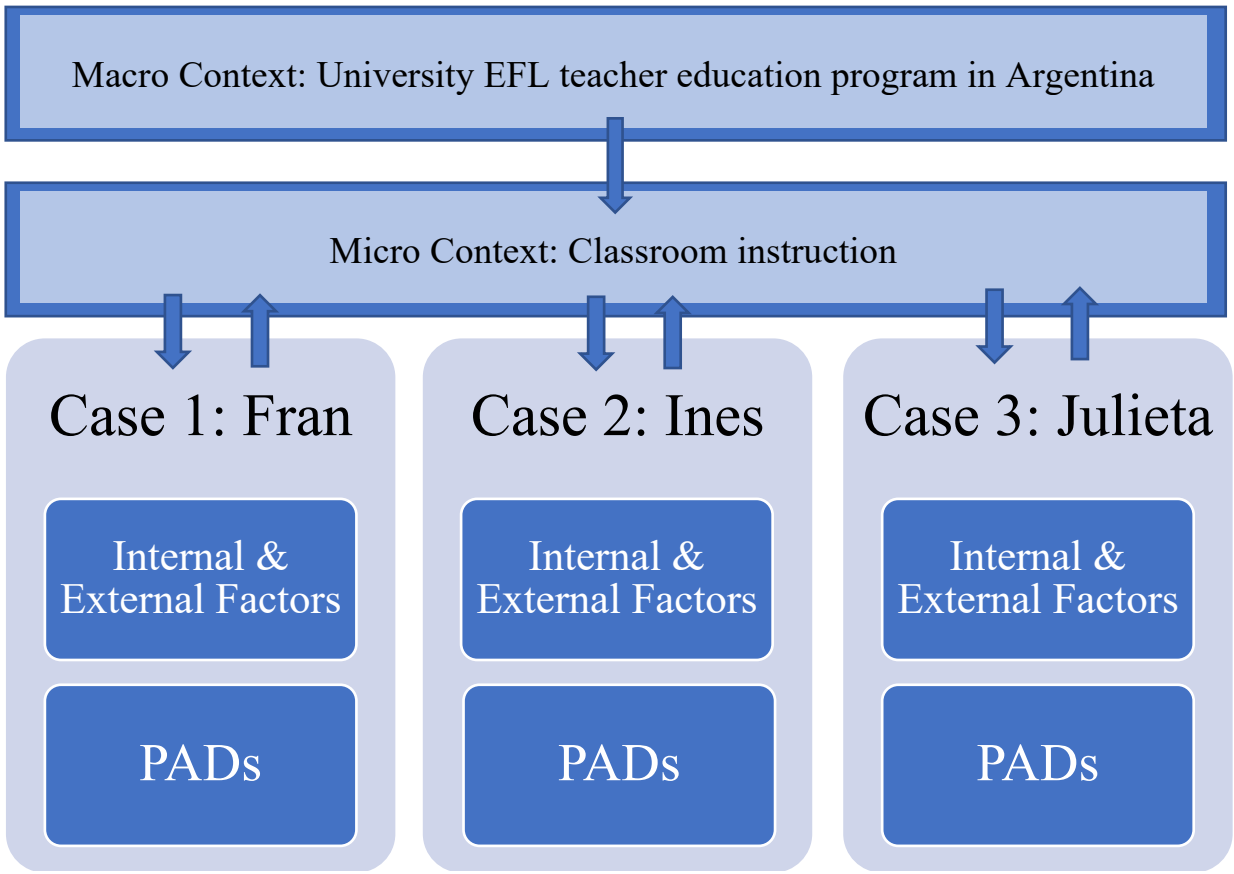
Case studies, as a tradition within the qualitative research approach (Richards, 2003), are widely used in the field of education (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). There have been numerous definitions as to what the term *case study* means since each researcher views it differently (Richards, 2003; Simons, 2009). However, Gall et al. (2003) propose a concise definition of what case study research constitutes. They state that it is 'the in-depth study of instance of a phenomenon in its natural context from the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomenon' (p. 436). Additionally, a case study is unique, bounded, centered on connections, variable, intricate, and blended (Cohen et al., 2011; Denscombe, 2010; Richards, 2011; Van Wynsberghe & Khan, 2007) and may have one or multiple topics depending on what is being researched (Creswell, 2013). As this study was constructivist in perspective (i.e. the participants and the researcher socially construct reality and the

worldview within the project (Richards, 2003)) and aimed to increase an understanding of three specific phenomena (e.g. what PADs teacher educators engage in, what internal and external factors teacher educators refer to in their rationales for their PADs, and what role these factors play in influencing their PADs) I felt that the research tradition of case studies met the criteria for what a case study is (i.e. bounded, contextualized, occurs within the actual context, and contains several sources of data (Richards, 2003)) and was appropriate for this project. Therefore, this research project was designed to be comprised of three case studies, one per participant, within which the three phenomena were investigated thoroughly using multiple data collection instruments (e.g. interviews, classroom observations, fieldnotes) over a 10-month period of time in the natural teaching environment of the teacher educators (Creswell, 2013; Gerring, 2007; Simons, 2009). These various methods of data collection allowed the multiple cases to be studied from several viewpoints and, therefore, produced substantive and rich data.

As each participant was exemplified by a separate case, the type of case study that was used in this research project was that of the *multiple-case design* (Creswell, 2013; Richards, 2011; Stake, 2005). Each primary unit of analysis (i.e. each participant) contains two primary 'embedded units of analysis', the internal and external factors and how those impacted the teacher educators' pedagogical choices, thereby making the type of case study used in this project an *embedded multiple-case design* (Yin, 2014, p. 50). These three cases and the embedded phenomena were further explored within their *micro context* (classroom instruction) and *macro context* (a university EFL teacher education program in Argentina). A visual representation of the embedded case study design that was applied to this project is exemplified in Figure 2 on the next page. In addition, this research project can be seen to be *collective* in nature as it was comprised of more than one case which focused on understanding the phenomena of how internal and external factors influenced teacher educators' PADs within this specific context in the hope that this study may help further the field's appreciation of similar phenomena and cases (Stake, 1995).

Initially, I conceptualized my study as being aligned with the *case study* research tradition in that case studies are designed to focus 'on a particular case (an individual, a group, or a situation) in fine detail, within its natural context' so as 'to probe into its characteristics, dynamics, and purposes' (van Lier, 2011, p. 195). However, upon further examination and reevaluation, I believe that my study also included ethnographic elements, especially

Figure 2: Adapted from Yin (2014, p. 50): Embedded multiple-case study design used in he current study



regarding the ways in which I sought opportunities to collect data, which are further explained below.

Ethnography, as explained by Richards (2003), 'seeks to describe and understand the behaviour of a particular social or cultural group' (p. 14) within 'their own contexts with a view to seeing the context and the world as they [the participants] see it' (i.e. the participants' own perspective) (Copland, 2018, p. 250). In order to achieve this aim, ethnographic researchers must build strong, personal relationships with the participants (Ybema & Kamsteeg, 2009) and, therefore, tend to 'focus on one (or a small number of) research sites, spend time in those sites, observing, talking to people ("participants") and taking part in local practices' (Copland, 2018, p. 251). These characteristics of ethnography partially align with the present constructivist research project and, thus, it is important to further discuss the ethnographic elements that exist in this case study research project. As explained by Wei (2019), there are four main elements in doing ethnographic research. They are

> i) having a clear interest in a specific cultural practice of a social group or a social phenomenon; ii) immersing oneself in everyday social interaction to observe the

> practice or the phenomenon in context over a substantial period of time … ; iii) collecting evidence of how the members of the community make sense of their own practice or the social phenomenon; and iv) presenting an account of one's observations (pp. 156-157).

I believe that the present study aligns well with three of these components (i.e. i, iii, and iv), particularly in relation to the unique way in which the data was collected, which organically grew during the process and depended on each individual teacher educator (see Section 4.4 for more information on data collection). I had a strong interest in this group of teacher educators (i.e. element i) and I have amassed data which showed how these educators understood themselves and their roles (i.e. element iii). In order to do this, I aimed to investigate, through building a friendly relationship with these three experienced Argentinian EFL teacher educators who worked in the same teacher education program in Argentina (i.e. a small group of people with a distinct culture of their own) and spending extensive time in their workplace, how internal and external factors influenced their PADs in order to better understand their professional practices from their perspectives and within their unique pedagogical contexts (Copland, 2018; Draper, 2015; Maggs-Rapport, 2000; Richards, 2003; Wei, 2019). Furthermore, I have reported and disseminated my interpretations through multiple channels (i.e. element iv). Wei (2019) does continue to explain that the role of an ethnographer 'is never a passive process of observing and recording' and, thus, ethnographers typically play 'a specific social role in the community and participates in activities' (p. 157). It is due to this and the fact that I did take a more passive role as a researcher while observing (i.e. I intentionally tried not to interact with my participants while observing their teaching) and, therefore, I believe that my research tradition is that of case study that incorporated ethnographic elements.

4.4 Methods of data collection

In total, five different methods of data collection (autobiographical background interviews, classroom observations, fieldnotes, semi-structured stimulated recall interviews, and follow-up interviews) were used over three stages (within a period of ten months) to collect my data sets. This process was organized in this manner for several reasons: a) it gave me time to consider the previously gathered data, b) it allowed me to perform data analysis cyclically, and c) it gave me insights which helped me to prepare for the next phase of data collection. The data collection method of semi-structured stimulated recall interviews, which generated my primary dataset, was used in combination with four secondary methods (e.g.

autobiographical background interviews, classroom observations, fieldnotes, and follow-up interviews) to produce naturalistic, rich, and multidimensional data in this study (Creswell, 2013). The data sets gathered contained *naturally occurring data* in the form of classroom observations and *generated data* in the form of the various types of interviews (e.g. semi-structured autobiographical background interviews; stimulated recall interviews; fieldnotes; semi-structured follow-up interviews) (Ritchie, 2003; Silverman, 2014). As this research project was qualitative in nature, I, as the researcher, was actively involved in the gathering, production, and analysis of the data and I therefore had the ability to unintentionally affect the process of data collection (Denscombe, 2010) (see Section 4.2). The phases, data collection methods, and different data sets, along with the word count for each method, are shown in Table 10 on the next page and the following sections offer detailed explanations of each method utilized in turn.

4.4.1 Stage One

Semi-structured, autobiographical background interview

The first phase of data collection consisted of one one-on-one autobiographical, semi-structured background interview (BI) with each teacher educator. A copy of what was prepared in order to conduct these interviews can be seen in Appendix 1. Interviews in qualitative research are an important method of data collection as they help the researcher to see things from the position of the participants and can therefore help to clarify the significance the participants attach to what they have experienced (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009); much more on this subject is included below (see Section 4.4.3). It was important to learn about the participants' backgrounds as this study investigated teacher educator cognitions (e.g. beliefs, emotions, perceptions) in relations to pedagogical decisions and, therefore, drew upon sensitive cognitive information. Unless I gathered relevant information pertaining to the participants' lives, I would have been unable to draw connections between their PADs, the internal and external factors that influenced them, and their cognitions. I chose to use interviews that were semi-structured in nature as I wanted the data to emerge naturally and to allow for flexibility for my participants to add information that they believed to be pertinent (Borg, 2006). Despite the fact that I was reliant on the teacher educators' extremely hectic schedules, I was able to conduct all of the background interviews within a two-and-a-half-week time period. This gave me a brief period of time to transcribe and analyze these interviews and prepare for the second phase of data collection, which started a

Table 10: Amount of data collection instruments used in the current study

Data collection stage	Data collection instrument	Fran	Ines	Julieta	Total
Stage One (Mar. 2016)	Autobiographical background interview	1	1	1	3
Word Count:		6,623	5,812	9,137	21,364
Stage Two (Mar. 2016 - Jun. 2016)	Classroom observation	9	7	8	24
	Stimulated recall interview	9	7	8	24
Word Count:		61,384	36,206	27,928	125,518
Stage Three (Jun. 2016 - Aug. 2016)	Follow-up interview	1	1	1	3
Word Count:		6,902	4,743	6,721	18,366

couple of weeks later[14]. The overall aims of this phase were to a) learn about the participants' personal and professional histories, b) build rapport with the participants (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1991; Shah, 2004), c) elicit their beliefs about being a teacher educator in the field of EFL, d) elicit their perceived beliefs about the context, and e) acquire knowledge about the context as I was perceived as having an inbetweener perspective (Milligan, 2016) (see Section 4.2 for a discussion on the insider/outsider perspective). Before the autobiographical interviews were held, I mentioned to the participants that I was interested in observing their PADs and understanding the rationales for their use but did not provide more information about the study so as to not influence my participants' behavior in class or their answers during the interviews. Moreover, it is important to note that, although I would have liked to have given the participants the option to hold the interviews in either English or Spanish, the interviews were conducted in English. This decision was due to the fact that my level of

[14] Some of the participants requested that I not come to the first class of the term as they wanted to establish a sense of rapport with their students first. Additionally, they stated that they would be going over the logistics of the course and did not believe it would be beneficial for my project.

Spanish was not suitable at the time to hold them in Spanish. Also, the participants worked as teacher educators on an EFL teacher preparation program where all of the classes were conducted in English and thereby my participants were fluent in English. This lack of linguistic choice for the participants regarding the interview can be considered to be a limitation and potential ethical issue and is discussed in more detail in Section 4.9.

4.4.2 Stage two

The aims of this phase were as follows:

- To gather data regarding the participants' PADs;
- To ascertain which internal and external factors impacted the participants'; and
- To explore the relationship between the recognized internal and external factors and the participants' PADs.

Stage two of data collection began within a month of my arrival in Argentina, immediately after the autobiographical background interviews were completed, and lasted for approximately four months (i.e. March – June 2016, the first term of the university school year). During this phase of data collection, I performed classroom observations, took fieldnotes, and conducted semi-structured stimulated recall interviews based on the observations and fieldnotes. Due to the term and my participants' teaching schedules, I investigated my participants concurrently throughout the 2016 school year (March-December 2016). The participants and I co-created the observation and interview schedules based on their term workload as I wanted to make the data collection process convenient for them. We all agreed that I would observe between eight and ten classes per participant and then hold the stimulated recall interviews with them within a week of each observation[15]. I was able to abide by this schedule with Fran and Julieta, minus a couple of instances when our schedules needed to be rearranged due to situations that emerged (e.g. strikes, severe weather), but I was only able to complete seven observations and stimulated recall interviews with Ines as there were several external factors that caused her classes to not to be held (e.g. university strikes, severe weather, vacation days, teaching assistant leading the class). Each of the classroom observations were audio recorded via a voice recording application on my iPad while I took detailed fieldnotes where I wrote down times of critical moments, or what Agar (1996) described as 'rich points' (p. 26) (see below for an explanation of how these critical moments were identified). I then analyzed these recordings and notes for situational instances

[15] I preferred to conduct the stimulated recall interviews within three to four days of the observation, but this was often not possible due to the participants' extremely busy schedules.

to use during the stimulated recall interviews with the participants. The first couple of classroom observations with each of the participants were particularly important because they allowed me to become accustomed to the participants' teaching styles and to see what types of PADs they typically engaged in. During these observations, I followed the suggestions posited in the literature by scholars such as Copland (2018), Richards (2003), and Spradley (1980) and documented the 'setting, people … , systems … and behaviour' I observed (Copland, 2018, p. 256-7). In doing this, I was thereby able to determine what I perceived as critical moments (i.e. those that seemed to be unusual to the teaching style of the participants as observed over various observation periods and those that seemed to greatly impact the participants at the time they took place) which were relevant to the research questions of this project (ibid.). Critical moments that I perceived as having been important and, therefore, wanted to explore further also became clear during the process of coding as it allowed me 'to identify the normal and regular from the unusual and noteworthy' (ibid, p. 259). Thus, after these critical instances were identified, they were then used as stimuli and replayed for my participants during the remaining stimulated recall interviews[16] within a week of each corresponding observation.

Observations

Classroom observations played an imperative role in the data collection process and, therefore, produced a large portion of my secondary data set. The main purpose for using observations as a data collection instrument was to recognize naturally occurring instances of the participants' PADs and the relationship to the participants' enacted cognitions and to thereby understand the teacher educators' rationales for these PADs. These instances were then discussed in more detail during the stimulated recall interviews. This was particularly important for my study as I wanted to view and understand the enacted cognitions of teacher educators and not simply their stated cognitions. I believe that by undertaking observational data allowed me to learn more about the enacted cognitions of my participants. I observed my participants within their classroom environments where English was the medium of instruction over approximately four months so as to gather data regarding their PADs and the internal and external factors that influenced them. Borg (2006) asserts that observational research contains nine essential dimensions: participation, awareness, authenticity, disclosure, recording, structure, coding, analysis, and scope. These nine aspects and their

[16] The stimulated recall interviews were also audio recording using the same voice recording application on my iPod.

impact on this study are described in detail in Table 11 on the next page.

Researcher's fieldnotes

I kept fieldnotes that I compiled while I conducted research in the field both during the pilot study and the data collection periods so as to help me manage the complexity of my project (Cousin, 2009) and better understand the 'strange' I encountered in order to make it familiar (Copland, 2018). According to Creese (2011), fieldnotes comprise 'productions and recordings of the researcher's noticings with the intent of describing the research participants' actions' (p. 44). Fieldnotes thus 'allow the researcher to begin to understand and represent the insider's perspective, providing situated, contextualised accounts of lived realities' (Copland, 2018, p. 252). I believe keeping fieldnotes was important as it helped me to 'safeguard against sloppy thinking and inadvertent overlooking of ethical issues' (Walliman, 2006, p. 147), to address any questions or issues that arose, and to refine my data collection procedures, particularly during the pilot study. Moreover, as noted by Copland (2018), the use of fieldnotes was particularly pertinent during my data collection process as they allowed me to concentrate on my research questions during the observations and interviews which thereby helped to keep me focused while in the unfamiliar context of this study.

I attempted to keep fieldnotes in much the same manner as described by Punch (2012) in that fieldnotes tend to be kept in order to help the researcher make sense of 'observations, descriptions of places, events, people and actions … reflections and analytical thoughts about what the observations may mean: emerging ideas, notes on themes and concepts, links to research questions and the wider literature' (p. 90). Prior to engaging in the process of taking any fieldnotes I confirmed with my participants that they were comfortable with me jotting down fieldnotes and capturing recordings during the periods of classroom observations and interviews. Despite these assurances, I am aware that my presence in the classroom while observing still may have influenced the participants. Initially, I quickly jotted down the events and characteristics I wanted to take note of, 'particularly those that seem relevant to the research participants' (Copland, 2018, p. 251). While taking fieldnotes during classroom observations, I attempted to leave my emotions out of the process, but I am aware that all notes are subjective by nature and, therefore, acknowledge that my impressions of what I witnessed while observing the participants may have impacted my notetaking (see Section 4.2 for a further discussion on reflexivity). On review of my fieldnotes, I added codes to mark

Table 11: Adapted from Borg (2006, p. 230): Dimensions of observational research in the current study

Dimension	Role in the current study
1. Participation	Initially I wanted to be viewed as a *complete* observer, meaning that I would attempt to only observe and not interact with or be intrusive towards my participants throughout the entire observation process (Borg, 2006). However, this proved to be unrealistic and I therefore adopted the stance of a *non-participant* observer in this study. I still tried to minimize my interaction with my participants during the observation process and therefore sat at the back of the classroom, stayed quiet, and only partook in the lessons when directly asked to (e.g. asked a question by the participant or by a student).
2. Awareness	The observations that were performed were *overt* in nature since the participants were preemptively fully aware of when and how they were to be observed.
3. Authenticity	The observations took place in the settings of the participants' own classrooms so as to gather data that arose naturally.
4. Disclosure	The disclosure in this study was partial in that the participants were aware of the main foci and aims of what I was investigating (e.g. teacher educators' PADs, the participants thoughts about their use of said PADs), but not every aspect was disclosed in an attempt to minimize data contamination (i.e. I did not want the participants to change their behavior. I did this in an attempt to prevent potential ethical issues.
5. Recording	After obtaining permission from the participants and their students, these observations were audio recorded using a voice recording application on my personal iPad. I also took thorough notes of specific instances I wanted to discuss in further detail with my participants during the stimulated recall interviews in my field journal during each observation. Moreover, I gathered relevant documents (e.g. course syllabi, teaching worksheets, pictures of teaching notes) from the classes and the courses on which my participants taught.
6. Structure	The observations in this study were *open* in that the data produced during them were not be 'recorded against predetermined analytical categories' (Borg, 2006: 230).
7. Coding	The data was coded retrospectively as open structured observations were conducted (Borg, 2006). Additionally, the data groupings were allowed to arise independently within the main concentrations of the study (Sanchez, 2010).
8. Analysis	Qualitative data analysis methods (e.g. transcription, coding, content analysis, cross-case analysis) was used in this research project.
9. Scope	I conducted between seven and nine classroom observations with each participant depending on their availabilities (nine with Fran, seven with Ines, and eight with Julieta). Each observation lasted an entire class period of 110-120 minutes over an approximate four-month period.

specific themes that commonly occurred and that I wanted to explore in further detail during the stimulated recall interviews with the participants. My fieldnotes proved to be indispensable during data collection as I took them in real-time during the interviews and observations, specifically of critical events, and the times they occurred, that I wished to discuss in further detail with my participants. This procedure helped me greatly with my data analysis and with the stimulated recall interviews as I could go directly to pertinent, critical instances (i.e. significant moments illustrating the teacher educators' PADs).

4.4.3 Stage three

Stimulate recall interviews

Stimulated recall interviews were used in this study to elicit teacher educators' rationales for using certain PADs in their observed classroom practices and to thereby gain a better understanding of the internal and external factors that impacted their PADs. I conducted semi-structured, stimulated recall interviews as the primary data collection method of this research project in order to gather more information about critical moments that had been identified during the classroom observations (Sanchez & Grimshaw, 2020). Before further describing how stimulated recall interviews were employed in this research project, it is necessary to provide a detailed background into what the qualitative interview process involves and how it can be conducted. Richards (2003) clearly explains that when interviewing 'we [researchers] need to go deeper, to pursue understanding in all its complex, elusive and shifting forms; and to achieve this we need to establish a relationship with people that enables us to share in their perception of the world' (p. 50). This is what I set out to do in this project. In order to share in the participants' perception of their worlds, I realized that I not only needed to learn how to become a competent interviewer but also to work on building rapport with them and to understand how knowledge and data are co-created within qualitative interviews.

I therefore followed the advice provided in Talmy & Richards' (2011) special issue of Applied Linguistics, which delves into the importance of acknowledging the constructionist, social nature of research interviews rather than viewing them as an instrument to merely collect data. Talmy (2011) explains that research interviews are not only a data collection instrument that 'a tool for investigating truths, facts, experience, beliefs, attitudes, and/or feelings of respondents' (p. 26). Qualitative research interviews are a 'social practice' and 'process-oriented' where the knowledge and the data generated collaboratively during the research process are 'representations or accounts of truths, facts, attitudes, beliefs, mental

states' which have been 'co-constructed between interviewer and interviewee' (Talmy, 2011, p. 27). Therefore, qualitative research interviews 'promote the need to examine both what interviewees and interviewers say, and how they say it' (Miller, 2011, p. 45). I actively employed these constructionist principles to interviewing in the present research project and, thus, co-created the primary data set with the participants.

The primary type of interviewing used in this study was semi-structured in nature (i.e. when the researcher utilizes 'a set of questions…which acts as a guide' (Copland & Creese, 2015, p. 30)) and facilitated recall through the use of stimuli (i.e. audio recordings of the critical instances identified during the observation process). These stimuli encouraged introspection amongst the participants about specific topics pertinent to this study (Lyle, 2003; Sanchez & Grimshaw, 2020), enabled them to recollect 'events to facilitate a discussion of the factors influencing them', (Borg, 2006, p. 219), and invited them to co-create knowledge and data in the present study through our conversations during the interview process. According to Sanchez & Grimshaw (2020), in order to conduct stimulated recall interviews, the participants normally 'listen to video/audio recordings and then provide verbal commentaries on them, either spontaneously or prompted by the researcher' (Sanchez & Grimshaw, 2020, p. 1). In the case of the current study, the stimuli were provided audially as I believed videotaping the classroom observations would be particularly obtrusive and would have the most potential to alter the participants' behavior during the observations (Borg, 2006). Moreover, only the selected stimuli that were associated with the foci of this study (i.e. the teacher educators' use of PADs and how internal and external factors impacted these PADs) were played for the participants as each classroom observation was 110-120 minutes in length and I therefore did not want the research process to become burdensome, especially as the teacher educators all had extremely busy teaching schedules. Table 12 on page 78, which is adapted from Sanchez (2010), illustrates the main characteristics of stimulated recall interviews and how they were used in the present study.

While stimulated recall interviews were appropriate for this study, it is necessary to acknowledge that concerns about this data collection instrument have been raised. Borg (2006, 2015) explains that participants may engage in impromptu justifications after the fact as they may not remember specific events that transpired during the classroom observations irrespective of the audio stimuli. In order to dismiss this concern, however, the researcher must prepare the stimulated recall interviews thoroughly prior to them being conducted and to deliver them as soon as possible post-observation (Gass & Mackey, 2000). In the case of

this study, the stimulated recall interviews with the teacher educators were always conducted within one week of the classroom observations. I acknowledge that it would have been preferable to hold these interviews immediately after, or within a day or two of, the respective observation; however, this was not usually realistic due to my participants' schedules. My first priority was to accommodate the teacher educators and, therefore, the interviews typically occurred between two and seven days after the class was observed. I therefore had ample time to revisit the audio-recordings of the classroom observations, to find the appropriate stimuli, and to prepare for the semi-structured stimulated recall interviews.

I conducted a final, semi-structured follow-up (FUI) interview with each participant after completing the first two stages of data collection, as described above., in order to add to the secondary dataset. These follow-up interviews were conducted between two and six weeks, depending on the participants' schedules, after the final stimulated recall interviews based on observations were completed with each respective participant. This data collection instrument was employed in order to examine and/or clarify any remaining queries related to, and to allow both the teacher educators and the researcher to reflect upon this study. Due to the need to work around my participants' schedules I was able to transcribe all the background interviews and most of the stimulated recall interviews and to begin the first cycle of thematic data analysis. Thus, these provisional data were used in the follow-up interviews. Lastly, in addition to thanking my participants throughout the entirety of the data collection process, I took each of them out for coffee in order to express my gratitude for their active and enthusiastic participation in my project.

4.4.4 Pilot study

In order to be fully prepared for the data collection process I conducted a full-scale pilot study of each of my proposed data collection instruments as the purpose of a pilot study is to evaluate the viability and practicality of each method and to amend said methods, if necessary (Mackey & Gass, 2005; Turner, 2010). There were four main reasons for piloting my means of data collection. They were:

a) To determine if the instruments were capable of capturing the type of data for which they were intended;

Table 12: Adapted from Sanchez (2010, p. 89): Characteristics of stimulated recall interviews in the current study

Characteristics	The current study
Object of introspection	How internal and external factors influence teacher educators' PADs
Modality	The data were examined orally
Relationship to concrete action	The introspection was connected to real, concrete, critical events and actions which occurred during the classroom observations.
Temporal relation to action	Each teacher educator was observed once a week, unless the participants asked me not to go to a specific class, where each observation period lasted for an entire lesson (i.e. between 110-120 minutes). One stimulated recall interview was conducted per respective observation and this always occurred within a week of the lesson being observed. While it would have been preferable to always hold these interviews within a day or two, this was usually not practical due to the very busy schedules of the participants.
Participant training	This study was the first time the teacher educators participated in stimulated recall interviews. While the participants did not need to undergo any particular training, the process of how the stimulated recall data collection instrument worked was explained prior to its use.
Stimulus for recall	Audio recordings were used as the recall stimuli. Occasionally, relevant teaching materials and notes were utilized as well.
Elicitation procedure	The elicitation process began with me asking the teacher educators to offer general comments on how they felt the lesson went. After this, I asked the participants to listen to specific, critical instances of their PADs that I noted during the observation and asked them to comment on their rationales for them. Throughout the interview process, the teacher educators were encouraged to add further comments that they deemed pertinent to the discussion we were having based on the pre-prepared semi-structured interview questions.

b) To prepare myself to conduct stimulated recall interviews[17];

c) To trial my audio-recording application on my iPad; and

d) To detect if any revisions to the data collection methods were necessary.

4.4.4.1 Context and participant

Due to timing issues, it proved to be difficult to find multiple participants with whom to pilot my study. In spite of this, I was able to find one participant who was willing to take part in my pilot study in the United States[18] through mutual connections. The participant was an experienced teacher educator at a local, private university and allowed me to conduct a

[17] Due to my MA degree I had gained experience conducting semi-structured interviews with EFL teachers but not stimulated recall interviews.

[18] I was briefly in my hometown in the USA prior to my arrival in Argentina.

background interview, observe a lesson, and conduct a semi-structured stimulated recall interview based on the observation with her. Her willingness to work with me helped me to fine-tune my data collection instruments and these updated data collection instruments were later applied to the remainder of my study.

It is imperative to note that I did not think that the difference in contextual location between the pilot study in the USA and the actual study in Argentina would compromise what I learned from the pilot study or how I could improve the data collection methods for my study that was later conducted in Argentina. While I do acknowledge that the contexts are very different and that, with more time, I learned firsthand that contextual factors do play an important part in the relationship between teacher educators' cognitions and their PADs, the pilot allowed me to trial my data collection techniques and revise accordingly. This is important as I deemed to be the primary focus as I am still a novice researcher and wanted to gain more experience with these methods prior to initiating my actual study. I believe that my pilot study did just this and therefore was successful.

4.4.4.2 Data collection procedures

The data collection procedures of the pilot study mirror what was outlined in Sections 4.4.1 – 4.4.3 and took just under three weeks to complete. During stage one, the semi-structured background interview and the one-hour classroom observation occurred. In order to record the interviews and lesson I used an audio-recording application on my iPad and iPod and was pleasantly surprised with the quality of the recording it provided. I transcribed the background interview and observation audio-recordings taking into account that I, the researcher and transcriber, needed 'to be reflective and reflexive' about the conscious choices I made concerning the transcription process in this current study (Copland & Creese, 2015, p. 2). Doing this allowed me to identify significant moments during the classroom observation that I wished to highlight during the stimulated recall interview. Upon completion of stage one I met with the teacher educator the following week to conduct the semi-structured stimulated recall interview. During this interview I utilized the meticulous notes of occurrences I wanted to discuss, which were kept in my field journal, and the audio recording from the observation.

The only issue that arose was that it was occasionally difficult to pull up a specific moment on the audio recording. I therefore learned that it was necessary to use a stylus pen to gain

better control on my iPad and that it was also helpful to start the recording approximately 30-seconds prior to the moment I wanted to discuss with my participant.

4.4.4.3 Impact of the pilot study on the data collection plans

The pilot study proved to be very useful for my study for several reasons. These include:

a) I had originally planned on only analyzing the data collected during the observations after the completion of each observation. However, I discovered that it was very useful to analyze the data in real-time and to make detailed notes of specific instances that I wanted to look at further afterwards.
b) I learned that it took much longer to transcribe the observations than the interviews. As I had chosen to keep a very detailed field journal which included the exact time of each particular instance which I wanted to discuss in the stimulated recall interviews I decided I did not need to transcribe every observation unless I specifically wanted to show my participant a written record in addition to the audio recording. These notes therefore allowed me to only transcribe the critical events which were detected during the observation and not the entire class period.
c) I realized that I needed to ask my participants for a copy of any materials they handed out during observations as well as the syllabus for the course/module on which they were being observed. I did not do this during the pilot and therefore modified my future data collection to include this.
d) As stated above, I was happy with the quality of the audio recordings on my iPad but became aware that I needed a stylus to get to the precise moment of each instance which I wanted to discuss with my participant as scrolling with my finger proved to be inaccurate and therefore wasted a lot of time.
e) I realized that conducting stimulated recall interviews is an advanced skill that I needed to work on in order to become more comfortable. I therefore practiced making semi-structured interview questions and setting up particular scenes which I wished to know more about based on my pilot study experience.

4.5 Participants

4.5.1 Sampling

In order to recruit participants for my study I utilized a *snowball or chain* sampling strategy where the participants were found by referral (Duff, 2008) via a contact I made in 2015 with the help of my supervisor. I initially wanted to have four participants take part in this study as

I felt that this would provide a great deal of powerful data (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). I was able to find four teacher educators who were willing to partake in my project who also met the specified criteria for this study: a) the participants needed to be working as teacher educators who instructed on an EFL teacher education program in higher education in Argentina for at least five years; b) The participants had to be working as a teacher educator in one of the following fields: linguistics, methodology, and cultural studies. These criteria were put in place as I wanted to observe and explore aspects of teacher educator cognition and pedagogical decision-making in this study and therefore needed to have participants who had experienced said phenomena (Creswell, 2013).

4.5.2 Case one: Fran

The first participant, Fran, was an Argentinian woman who was approximately 50 years old at the time of data collection and had been teaching EFL to various level and age groups in various contexts for approximately 25 years. Her first language was Spanish and Fran explained that she had always been very interested in English and began learning it as a child in both school and with a private tutor. Fran attended a large, national, public Argentinian university for her undergraduate teacher education degree and later furthered her education by completing an MA in English Language Teaching from a British university. At the time of this study Fran had been teaching two modules on an undergraduate EFL teacher education program at a large, national public university in Argentina which focused on EFL methodology and pedagogy for nearly a quarter of a century.

4.5.3 Case two: Ines

The second participant, Ines, was also an Argentinian woman who was in her early-fifties at the time of data collection. As with Fran, Ines had been teaching EFL to a range of level and age groups (although she noted that she preferred to work with students aged 15 and younger) in various contexts for over 26 years. Ines' first language was also Spanish and she began studying English at when she was nine. She had studied English both at school and with private tutors and attended the same large, national, public Argentinian university for her undergraduate teacher education degree as Fran did. Ines was also furthering her education by working on an MA degree in English language and literature from a national, public Argentinian university located in another city. At the time of this study Ines was teaching three modules which focused on English literature on the same program in which Fran taught on.

4.5.4 Case three: Julieta

The third participant, Julieta, was also an Argentinian woman who spoke Spanish as a first language and who was in her mid-forties at the time of data collection. As with the other two participants, Julieta had been teaching EFL to various level and age groups in different contexts for 24 years, 19 of which were at the university where this study was conducted. Julieta began studying English at school when she was 12 and started taking private English lessons soon after. She also obtained her undergraduate teacher education degree from the same large, national, public Argentinian university as Fran and Ines and was continuing her education by working on a PhD in Education from another national, public Argentinian university in a different city. At the time of this study Julieta was teaching two first-year English language learning modules on the same undergraduate EFL teacher education program as Fran and Ines.

4.6 Data analysis

The primary data analysis method used to address the research questions (see Section 1.3) was content/thematic analysis (Boyatzis, 1998; Denscombe, 2010; Duff, 2008; Krippendorff, 2013). According to Krippendorff (2013), content analysis allows the researcher to make 'replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter)' in reference to the research questions underlying a study (p. 24). Moreover, the data were analyzed cyclically throughout the entirety of the data collection process and summative at end of the process (Borg, 2011; Charmaz, 2006). Below is a step-by-step explanation of how the data were collected and analyzed in this study.

1. At the beginning of the data collection process, I conducted autobiographical interviews with each participant so as to gain an understanding of their backgrounds, how these impacted on their cognitions (e.g. beliefs, emotions, perceptions), and how these cognitions, in conjunction with internal and external factors, influenced their PADs (see Section 4.4.1 for more information about the autobiographical interviews). Each background interview was recorded audially on my iPad (which was securely locked in a travel safe while not in use to ensure data confidentiality) and then transcribed. These transcription files, and all subsequent transcriptions, were immediately saved under the pseudonym of the respective participant and uploaded to my password-protected personal laptop (which was also locked in the same travel safe) and the Cloud.

2. Next, I attended multiple (between seven and ten) classes with each participant in an observational capacity (see Section 4.4.2 for more information on these classroom observations). During these instances, the classroom observations were audially recorded on my iPad and I took fieldnotes (see Appendix 2 for a sample of my fieldnotes) of critical moments which occurred during each class and the time they took place so they could be replayed during the stimulated recall interviews (see Section 4.4.2 for an explanation of how these moments were determined to be critical). After each classroom observation I grouped the moments that I had perceived as having been critical into thematic areas (e.g. time, caring for students, acknowledging limits to one's own knowledge, creating a positive learning environment), as a form of coding (e.g. Charmaz, 2006; Duff, 2008; Given, 2008), to be explored in further detail in the next step of data collection, the semi-structured stimulated recall interviews. In order to better understand how the data were analyzed and how the themes emerged, the following steps illustrate how the data concerning the thematic area of 'time' were processed.
3. The following step was to conduct individual semi-structured, stimulated recall interviews with the participants based on their respective, previous classroom observation. During this step critical moments based on the thematic areas (e.g. time) that had been recorded audially on my iPad were played for the corresponding participant so that she could reflect on these instances. We (the interviewee and interviewer) had lengthy conversations regarding these instances based on an open set of questions created prior to the start of each interview. It is important to note that, as these interviews were semi-structured and constructionist in nature, the data generated from stimulated recall interviews must be seen as having been co-created (see Section 4.4.3 for further details) and that the participants also had control in steering the direction of each individual interview.
4. The audio recordings of each semi-structured, stimulated recall interview were then transcribed (see Appendix 4 for a sample transcription). Next, each transcription was analyzed further in relation to the units of analysis (i.e. the internal and external factors that influenced the teacher educators' PADs) and the separate thematic areas (e.g. time) through the use of matrices (Walliman, 2006) (see Appendix 5 for an example). This process was conducted cyclically (Borg, 2011) throughout the entirety of the third stage of data collection (see Section 4.4.3) so as to let the data emerge organically and inductively (Simpson & Tuson, 2003). This proved to be very

important due to the emphasis of my study having changed organically during the data collection process. It was during the initial stages of my analysis that I noticed that my participants were offering much more information about the internal and external factors that influenced their PADs and, therefore, I decided it was best to re-define the new focus of this research project and to shift away from my initial narrower focus on self-efficacy.

5. The next step of the data collection process was to conduct a follow-up interview (FUI) with each participant. Each FUI was then transcribed and also analyzed in regard to the thematic areas and units of analysis.
6. The final step of the data analysis process was to conduct a summative, cross-case analysis of the emergent data where I compared and contrasted the themes that had been identified during the earlier steps of the data collection and analysis processes. Through the use of cross-case analysis I was able to gain a clearer understanding of the relationship between the PADs of teacher educators and the internal (e.g. beliefs, perceptions, motivations, feelings) and external (e.g. environmental) factors that influenced them which existed across the three participants. With this clearer understanding I was again able to create matrices and diagrams to illustrate the main themes which had emerged (see Appendices 6 and 7 for examples). These matrices and diagrams proved to be very instrumental as I am a visual person and therefore, they helped me to view my data in a way that spoke clearly to me. Thus, I was able to more easily write the findings for each participant's case and the cross-case analysis at the end of Chapter Five as well as the Discussion (Chapter Six) which shows my contribution to the fields of teacher educator cognition and teacher educator pedagogy.

4.7 Trustworthiness and authenticity

Scholars who have written on research methods in social sciences (e.g. Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2013; Duff, 2008), utilize the terminology of *validity* and *reliability* from the positivist, quantitative research paradigm and apply them to qualitative research as well (Lincoln & Guba, 2011). As quantitative and qualitative research methods have been shown to be significantly dissimilar from one another (Choi, 2014; Tuil, 2010; Yilmaz, 2013), constructivist qualitative scholars have reestablished *validity* and *reliability* as *trustworthiness* and *authenticity*.

Trustworthiness is imperative in that it 'allows researchers to describe the virtues of qualitative terms outside of the parameters that are typically applied in quantitative research' (Given & Saumure, 2008, p. 896). The term *authenticity* seems to be an essential aspect of trustworthiness and, according to James (2008), is more concerned with qualitative research being considered meaningful and authentic and with 'its impact on members of the culture or community being researched' than with it meeting the quantitative standards of validity and reliability (p. 45). Lincoln & Guba (2011) explain that there are several factors to ensure authenticity in qualitative research. They are:

1. *Fairness*, which can be seen as purposely creating a sense of balance amongst all of the stakeholders. This is done by being inclusive and guaranteeing that all stakeholders' assertations are presented justly. Fairness was rigorously applied to the present research project through the use of clarifying questions, follow-up interviews and *respondent validation* / *member checking* (i.e. the practice where participants are offered a version of the study's findings in order 'to seek corroboration or otherwise of the account that the researcher has arrived at' (Bryman, 2016, p. 385)) to amend any factual inaccuracies and to ensure that the teacher educators' voices were accurately and fairly presented. At the beginning of the data collection process the practice of member checking was explained to the participants and we engaged in a form of member checking of the previous interview at the beginning of each subsequent interview in that I, the researcher, recounted my perceptions of the findings to each of the participants and asked them to verify for accuracy (ibid.). Furthermore, direct quotations from the participants were incorporated into the finding chapter (Chapter Five) so as to ensure fairness by offering an account of the participants' understanding of the phenomena being investigated in their own words.
2. *Ontological authenticity* and *educative authenticity* are responsibilities that researchers have for assisting their participants in acquiring a better understanding of the micro context in which the study takes place. The data collection instruments of background, stimulated recall, and follow-up interviews gave the participants ample opportunities to express their thoughts about their PADs and the context in which they were employed.
3. *Catalytic authenticity* (i.e. how much the present study has impacted the actions of the participants) and *tactical authenticity* (e.g. the influence on participants' wider community) occurred as speaking about their PADs and the internal and external factors that influenced them raised awareness amongst the participants. My

> participants told me several times throughout the research process that they thoroughly enjoyed delving deeper into this relationship and found it very useful. It is hoped that the participants who partook in this study will therefore engage in similar discussions with their colleagues and thus help them to reflect upon their experiences with this relationship.

It is also important to note *triangulation* in relation to trustworthiness which was undertaken in the present study. Triangulation refers the utilization of various data collection instruments to ensure that the phenomenon being studied is accurately represented and, therefore, that trustworthiness is amplified (Bryman, 2016; Creswell, 2013; Denscombe, 2010; Kagan, 1990; Yin, 2009). This is particularly important in studies, such as the present one, involving the cognitions and inner lives of teachers and the multidimensional and complex connection between such cognitions and teachers' practices as the use of triangulation makes it more apt that this sort of phenomenon will be encapsulated. In addition to methodological triangulation which was conducted across different data collection methods (e.g. background interviews, observations, stimulated recall interviews, follow up interviews), data triangulation involving time (i.e. the data collection process in this study was extended over a period of 10 months), space (i.e. the process was carried out across different classes and areas within the curriculum of the program), and people (i.e. the process was conducted across three individual teacher educators) was also undertaken in the current study. Both methodological and data triangulation helped to ensure for the present study's trustworthiness. Also, in order to assure for *dependability*, I have carefully outlined the methods and data collection techniques used in this project in the current chapter so that future scholars will be able to replicate this study in comparable contexts.

Lastly, it is imperative to briefly discuss researcher reflexivity, or 'the conscious revelation of the role of the beliefs and values held by researchers in the selection of research methodology for the generation of knowledge' (Hellawell, 2006, p. 483), and what procedures I took to address this issue. As mentioned in Section 4.2 above, as this research project was qualitative and, therefore, my presence as the sole researcher may have inadvertently influenced the processes of data collection and analysis, I carefully noted throughout the project what I perceived as my personal preconceptions brought on by my own lived experiences in an attempt to limit my own bias regarding the data which emerged in this study.

4.8 Ethical considerations

This section addresses the ethical considerations associated with this research project. According to Copland & Creese (2015) linguistic researchers, as well as all researchers in the social sciences (Denscombe, 2010), must ensure that their study safeguards the participants, guarantees voluntary involvement for the participants, does not engage in dishonesty, and obeys all laws. In order to adhere to these standards and those outlined by the British Educational Research Association's (BERA) Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research (2018) and to minimize any potential ethical issues that may have arisen, it was essential to ensure that this study followed a clear ethical framework. This framework included:

- Prior to beginning my data collection, I received ethical approval from the University of Bath Department of Education's Ethics Committee (see Appendix 8).
- The participants were notified in English, verbally and in writing, of the research process and data collection methods they would take part in during this project, the approximate amount of time that they would have to dedicate to the process, and the overall, primary objectives[19] of this study before the collection of any data was undertaken. Informed written consent, which considered the issues discussed by Copland & Creese (2015), was required of all participants prior to any data collection (Thomas & Pettitt, 2017) (see Appendix 9).
- The participants were also assured that in an effort to reduce the risk of harm to them, they had the right to withdraw from the research project for any reason at any time. Additionally, the participants had the right to decline to take part in any particular task that they did not want/feel comfortable doing. They also had the right to have any information removed and/or deleted from this project (see Appendix 9). In spite of this right, none of the participants withdrew from the project.
- The participants were assured of their rights to privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity. Pseudonyms were assigned to each participant and to the context being investigated.
- The participants were assured that they had the right to gain access to the audio recordings or their classroom observations and semi-structured interviews as well as the transcriptions of said interviews throughout the duration of this study. Moreover,

[19] I only specified the main objectives of my study in an attempt to avoid data contamination and to preclude the participants from inadvertently modifying their behavior to correspond with the aims of this study (Cohen et al., 2011).

it was explained to the participants that they had the right to partake in member checking of the interview transcriptions (see Section 4.7).

- The participants were made aware of how the collected data were stored and for how long: all of the audio recordings and transcriptions were stored confidentially in encrypted files on my personal laptop and on the cloud under the participants' pseudonyms during the data collection process and during the time in which my thesis was written. They will then be destroyed upon the completion of my doctorate. Additionally, the transcriptions of the participants' stimulated recall interviews, background and final interviews, and classroom observations will be saved for at least 10 years after the completion of the data collection per the University of Bath's policy.[20] The participants were asked to give their approval for the collected data to be disseminated as a by-product of this study (e.g. conference presentations, publications). Throughout the process of my Ph.D. I made a concerted effort to engage with the wider research community in order to gain feedback on my study. I not only brought my expertise as a language educator and researcher to an ongoing European Union funded project that was comprised of various stakeholders in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil from 2018-2020 which focused on the co-creation methodology, I was also fortunate to have been able to present at multiple conferences at the various stages of my study and to diverse audiences.[21] These presentations include:
    - Preliminary findings:
        - I presented a talk entitled '*An investigation into teacher educator self-efficacy and pedagogy in Argentina*' at the ECUATESOL conference in Guayaquil, Ecuador in June 2016 after completing the data collection process and the initial analysis of the data. I also spoke about my research project at the Universidad Ténica de Ambato, in Ambato, Ecuador in October 2016 entitled *'Teacher self-efficacy and pedagogy in Argentina'*. As explained in Section 1.2 the exact focus of my thesis shifted during my data collection process from the narrow

[20] The policy of the University of Bath suggests that obtained research data must be retained after project completion if these data substantiate the research project's findings.
[21] I dedicated the majority of my time to the Latin American research community as that was where the context of my study was located. I also chose to present at IATEFL as it is a seminal conference in the field and is in the UK (where my doctoral institution is located) and an additional conference in the Middle East because I wanted to see how the wider research community would react to my study.

topic of teacher educator self-efficacy to the broader theme of the internal and external factors that influence teacher educators' PADs. These chances to present helped me to refine my topic.

- Findings and implications:

  I gave several presentations at this level of my research project as I felt that I could benefit from others' feedback and comments. I believe that my participation in these conferences greatly enhanced, not only my engagement with other members of the wider research community, but also my confidence level while presenting and answering questions from audience members in regard to my topic. It also helped me to clarify some lingering questions I had about my project by gaining insights from others.

  - The first was at the ANUPI (Asociación Nacional Universitaria de Profesores de Inglés A.C. / National Association of University Teachers of English) & COPEI (College of Professional Teachers of English) in Puerto Vallarta, Mexico in October 2017 entitled *'How Teacher-educator Emotions and Pedagogical Choices Relate: An Argentinian Case Study'*.
  - The second was at the ALLT (The Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching Conference and Exhibition) at Zayed University in Dubai, UAE in March 2018 titled '*Teacher-educator pedagogical beliefs about teaching and learning: An Argentinian case study*'. I felt that it would be useful for me to present to an audience outside of Latin America to gain any potential insights that an outsider's perspective could bring.
  - The third presentation was given at IATEFL in Brighton in April 2018 under the name '*A case study on Argentinian teacher educator emotions and pedagogy*'. I was particularly excited to present at IATEFL as it is one of the biggest conferences in the field and I knew that there would be many cognition and Latin American education experts attending.
  - Most recently I presented a talk entitled '*Teacher educator inner lives and pedagogy: An Argentinian case study*' at the BRAZ-TESOL conference in Curitiba, Brazil in July 2019. This presentation gave me the valuable opportunity to speak about the overall findings, how the

findings relate to the existing literature, and the implications of my study prior to the completion of my thesis.

4.9 Summary

This aim of this chapter was to delineate the methodology of the present study in detail: its qualitative research design (4.2), my rationale for using case studies (4.3), the methods used for data collection (4.4), the participants who partook in this study (4.5), how the data was analyzed (4.6), and the trustworthiness (4.7) and ethical considerations (4.8) of this project. The next chapter expounds comprehensively upon the findings of each participant's case which was collected utilizing a case study design (4.3), data collection instruments (4.4), and methods of data analysis (4.5) that were described above.

Chapter Five: Findings

5.1 Introduction

This study focuses on the PADs teacher educators take and on the internal and external factors underlying the rationales behind these PADs. The data collected in this study consisted of a background interview with each participant (BI); a series of stimulated recall interviews (SRI), which provided the primary data for this study based on classroom observations (CO) I conducted within each participant's class; and a follow-up interview (FUI) with each participant at the end of the data collection period. The findings of this study are presented in three individual cases: Fran (5.2), Ines (5.3), and Julieta (5.4). The cross-case analysis (5.5) analyzes the emergent themes which became apparent and, thus, these themes have been 'clearly grounded in the data from which they emerged' (Borg, 1998: p. 14). In order to facilitate easier reading, each participant section has been further subdivided into three smaller sections per participant focusing on who each participant was as a teacher educator, how their cognitions (internal factors) impacted on their PADs, and how their working environment (external factors) influenced their PADs.

5.2 Fran

5.2.1 Background

Fran was an Argentinian female in her early 50s who spoke Spanish as a first language and was also fluent in English. Additionally, she had a basic understanding of Portuguese. Fran was a very experienced teacher who had been teaching EFL for approximately 25 years in various contexts to various levels and age groups at the time these data were collected. She obtained her teaching degree from a national, public university in Argentina and received her MA in English Language Teaching from a university in England in 1994. Fran described herself as a dedicated learner and teacher who enjoyed utilizing her artistic talents to incorporate visual learning in the classes that she taught (BI).

At the time of this study, Fran had been working at a large, national, public university in Argentina for 24 years where she taught two modules focusing on EFL methodology and pedagogy on an EFL teacher education course. She was investigated in the context of one of these modules where she primarily delivered seminar style classes that encouraged student participation and interaction. Additionally, her classes occasionally contained in-class

assessments (e.g. storytelling, syllabus design). Fran taught one-third of this module in conjunction with another instructor who taught the remaining two-thirds. The section that Fran taught typically consisted of approximately 12-15 students who met with her once a week for a two-hour period. During these class periods, she focused on three topics related to EFL methodology: 'evaluation of materials …, syllabus design, and testing' (BI). Fran also stated that she did not receive any regular, formal feedback or evaluations regarding her teaching; instead, she indicated that she was able to turn to her peers when she needed advice (BI).

Fran stated that she was dedicated to helping her students learn, and that, to her, her students' learning was paramount (SRI1, SRI3). Fran seemed to have two main goals as a teacher educator in this particular context: to promote practical knowledge that is applicable to the real world (ibid.) and to create a comfortable, collaborative learning environment for her students (ibid.). These goals are presented and explained in detail below.

5.2.2 Rationales – Internal factors

Several internal factors seem to have influenced Fran's rationales for her PADs. Firstly, Fran articulated that she felt an emotional attachment – love – to being a teacher educator: 'I love what I'm doing. I'm really into it. I'm not just passing time. It's not, 'Oh, well. This day will take me two hours, and I want to leave before I start'' (SRI1). This quote shows Fran's intrinsic interest in and passion for teaching. Fran expressed that she found her career as a teacher educator to be professionally and personally fulfilling and was more than just a job. She explained:

> I feel I'm doing something good for them [her students], and really, that's my aim, that the student learns. What I am there for in the end? … Apart from my personal pleasure, because I enjoy it, my aim, my goal, is always that they learn and, if possible, that they learn, having a good time (ibid.).

While Fran made it clear that she enjoyed her profession, she also indicated that she was interested in and placed importance on ensuring that her students learned. Moreover, she expressed her dedication to the process of teaching and explained that her main focus was to help her students learn:

> I care because … I'm like that. I teach for the students to learn, not just to pass exams. My concern is always being here and everywhere. Yeah, I would like to see progress, understanding, learning. If not what's my job for? Just to get a salary? I'm not interested (SRI3).

This excerpt helps to illustrate a few of Fran's professional values: her love of teaching, her regard for her students, and her desire to promote student learning and professional development. These values, in turn, influence other facets of Fran's cognitions, such as the beliefs, emotions, goals, and motivations she experienced while teaching, thus illustrating the complex nature of her internal factors and how these internal factors affect her PADs. In particular, it became apparent that while Fran was interested in her students acquiring knowledge and doing well, she also was intent on helping them develop the practical knowledge which they can apply once they became teachers themselves (SRI1, SRI3). Fran said that she placed significance on helping her students go 'beyond passing tests, beyond getting the actual degree' (SRI1). She further explained:

> of course, passing tests is part of becoming a professional and meeting your degree … but what's more important for me is what remains out of all that, what remains in the long run that actually helps them and remains as a tool to manage in their everyday classroom practices when they become teachers themselves. So, I'm really interested in that as an ultimate goal (ibid.).

One way in which Fran attempted to support the development of students' practical, real-world knowledge that would be useful to them in their future careers as EFL teachers was by creating classes that were 'more student-centric' in design as she believed this increased the meaningfulness of learning for her students (ibid.). This relates back to Fran's own learning experiences (i.e. apprenticeship of observation) as she reported 'when I was at school, I liked certain subjects, but I didn't feel this [practicality] at all, or this relationship to the real world. I never felt it, but I always felt the need for that' (ibid.). She continued to explain that she was not able to understand the usefulness for some of the exercises she had completed as a student because she had 'no idea what this is used for outside the school. Nobody ever explained it to me' (ibid.). This lack of explanation and real-world applicability in Fran's own educational history, therefore, appeared to be a driving factor behind her choices to make learning meaningful for her students by conveying the usefulness and practicality of what they were acquiring in her class. In doing so, Fran felt that 'if they [the students] feel it's useful, it makes me happier in a way as a professional' (ibid.). Thus, when Fran was able to help her students see that what they were learning was valuable and useful for their future careers as EFL teachers, she felt more satisfied both professionally and personally.

Fran's second main value in teaching appears to be her desire to create a comfortable, supportive learning environment for her students. She indicated that she placed a high significance on building this type of atmosphere as she believed it helped her students to

learn and to interact with each other, and with her, in a collaborative fashion. Fran further explained that she wanted to establish this type of setting so that her students felt safe and were able to 'think aloud, and share, and maybe discuss together' (SRI1). By building an easy-going atmosphere within her classroom, Fran believed that her students would be more willing to engage with the material they were learning, with her, and with each other.

Fran considered student-student and teacher educator - student interaction, and student participation key to her students' learning process and encouraged both in her classes. During the classroom observations, it was noted that Fran requested her students rearrange the desks into a semicircle rather than leaving them in rows. When asked why she did this, Fran answered, 'so that they [the students] could see each other and interact better among themselves' and, therefore, would naturally allow for the use of pair and group work, both of which featured prominently in her classes (ibid.). This was important to her as she felt that having her students sit in rows created a cold atmosphere where most of the attention was placed on her, the teacher educator (ibid.). Fran wanted to break down this dynamic of the students primarily focusing on her as the teacher educator and considered that the rearrangement of seating allowed the students to interact more with one another (ibid.). Fran explained that she valued the interaction of and participation by her students because she believed that they should not act as 'passive recipients' while in class and should therefore 'take part in the [learning] process' (SRI2). She elaborated on this belief by saying that she 'think[s] they [the students] learn better by taking an active role in doing and not just listening always' (ibid.). Thus, the underlying principles (e.g. internal factors) associated with using a semicircular seating arrangement proved to be influential to her use of PADs and central to Fran's belief system as a teacher educator.

In addition to her use of an open seating arrangement, Fran tried to foster her students' learning in a comfortable, supportive environment by giving them ample chances to participate while in class. She stated that she endeavored to give 'each student, or at least most students, or the ones who are willing to participate, the chance to think for themselves and try to collaborate and have a say' while in class (SRI1). Underlying this was her belief that learning should not be solely based on the teacher's knowledge (ibid.):

> Not everything is what I know as a teacher. And that's the important thing. What they have to contribute, I think, has a lot to do with their own learning process because I believe that the more they participate and try to think for themselves and try to speak aloud about what they know and what they think, that will help them at least reflect.

One way in which Fran encouraged student participation in her class was by mentioning to the students the need for more involvement: 'This isn't the assignment. I need you to participate more' (CO). She explained that she made this particular comment because she felt that some of her students were reluctant to speak and participate while in class, which she thought was detrimental to their learning (SRI4). Fran also noted:

> I thought it was a safer opportunity to participate in class, so that then they feel more comfortable, and to see, more or less, what they think, how they can analyze. Because they never open their mouths, some of them. But that's an ideal way of encouraging them … to risk a bit more (ibid).

By giving her students the opportunities to participate and speak in class, Fran hoped that she would prepare them for when they were required to speak in the more threatening environment of one-on-one, oral, teacher-student assessments (ibid.). Thus, Fran seems to have placed significance on student interaction and participation in a supportive atmosphere as she thought both increased the potential for her students to learn. Regardless of Fran actively attempting to create a comfortable 'environment that is not threatening for them [her students], so that they feel at ease to communicate and to say what they think, what they know, what they remember', she was also consciously aware that she may not always have been able to accomplish this goal (ibid.).

Additionally, Fran tried to promote this comfortable classroom atmosphere by acknowledging her perceived inconsistencies as a teacher educator. Becoming aware of her own limitations in terms of her knowledge seems to have played a significant role in Fran's perceived development throughout her professional career. She disclosed:

> At the beginning, in the first years of my profession, especially at the university, I felt nervous, tense. I … felt more observed by the students as if they were criticizing me or because I was inexperienced, and I didn't know everything, and I was very scared about not knowing everything and not knowing how to answer. And now, I feel like a fish in water, not a fish out of water. It's like I've developed more confidence over the years and I feel much more comfortable, much more relaxed in front of the class. Even in the first class, because years ago the first class for me was like, 'I don't know.' The new faces and I was a bit shy, shocked, whatever. And everything I do in my life, everything I've done so far in my personal life, has helped me be more relaxed in that respect, more confident, more at ease, make more jokes, less serious, less tense, everything contributes (ibid.).

At the beginning of her career, Fran felt as if she was inexperienced and lacked a thorough content knowledge and was, therefore, scared, tense, and nervous. Over time Fran was able to overcome her feelings of uncertainty, nervousness, and anxiety and became more positive, comfortable, and secure in her role as a teacher educator. This may because Fran's perception

of what was expected teacher educator knowledge shifted. She expressed several times throughout the research process that she had acknowledged and accepted that she, as a teacher educator, was only human, and, therefore, no longer felt she needed to know everything or be the penultimate source of knowledge for her students (SRI1, SRI4, SRI7). Fran explained:

> I feel much more relaxed after so many years. Because in the first two years I taught, of course I felt like I had to remember everything and I had to know everything. It's impossible to know everything. But, with time, with your age, you start realizing, 'Well, if you forget, you forget.' Or, if you don't know something, or if you don't remember it so well … Well, you can always check. Go back, check your notes (SRI6).

Fran appeared to feel shy and insecure when she first started working as a teacher educator. However, Fran learned to adopt a more relaxed and positive attitude and recognized that she was not required to know everything, which in turn, may have helped her to feel more confident. This also suggests that Fran, at the time of this study, did not feel threatened by occasional gaps in what she knew, and was comfortable with her students recognizing this and the fact that it is acceptable for teachers and teacher educators not to know everything. This change of perception is possibly due to the work Fran did personally in order to gain more confidence (e.g. reflection, therapy) (SRI1). This is not to say that Fran did not find value in being correct and in having extensive knowledge in her field of expertise, but rather that she acknowledged that she was 'human…not a robot' and, therefore, was allowed to make mistakes as a teacher educator (SRI4). She continued:

> I mean, of course I would like to answer everything as good as possible, and as clear as possible, and have all the answers … I'm not God. And if, for example, there's something that I feel I need to carry on investigating, I would (ibid.).

Moreover, Fran explained how she actively made changes to how she behaved as a teacher educator. For instance, she stated that she was consciously aware of

> things that I've learned with time, and my reflections, my experience, the things I've heard. I'm always paying attention to what's going on in the classroom, to what I hear from former students … to what I hear about other classes, to my own experiences with students. I'm always paying attention to all those things, not just, 'Today I have to teach X and Y … It's things that have accumulated over the years' (ibid.).

Fran indicated that there were several factors, such as experience, reflection, and feedback from her students, which contributed to her development as a teacher educator. By engaging in self-reflection and by incorporating suggestions raised in the feedback from her students, Fran believed she was constantly willing to learn and grow as a teacher educator, even on her

own time, and thus attempted not to replicate processes which she considered had been 'done wrongly' or unsuccessfully, no matter how seemingly small and unimportant the modification appeared (SRI4). Through the process of making changes to her teaching approach, Fran hoped to be able to create 'a better classroom atmosphere and a better learning process' for her students, which subsequently may have impacted her sense of self as a teacher educator (ibid.).

Professional experience and the willingness to make changes to her teaching based on student feedback and self-reflection also seemed to influence Fran to become more positive in general. Fran explained that 'I feel that with the years, I've changed my attitude a lot to become more positive, more polite maybe, respectful, or subtler in the way I make the comments' (SRI1). Finding a way to incorporate the PAD of positivity, even in moments when she would not normally be inclined to feel so was important to Fran. She explained that in situations that were 'not so positive … I make an effort to find the way to do it in a way that doesn't hurt the student and that doesn't inhibit the student…or frustrate him or her' (ibid.). It is possible that by remaining optimistic during challenging situations, Fran was able to help sustain the comfortable atmosphere that she desired in her classrooms. Fran provided a detailed example of how important she viewed the impact that her PADs had on the students and the impact of a positive learning environment. Fran narrated:

> Last year I had a student who was not self-confident … So, I encouraged her. "Don't be afraid. You know this, that. You don't have to sort of ask for permission to do the things you do. You have the authority (ibid.).

Through this encouragement, the student expressed to Fran that:

> She [the student] felt very well with the comments and she told me … openly on the spot that she had had a completely different experience before and she felt very well in the fact that I stimulated her skills and her ability … her possibility to be able to do things (ibid.).

Thus, it appears that by making comments which centered on empowering her student and increasing the student's self-esteem, Fran's PADs impacted her students in a manner she perceived as having been encouraging and positive.

Moreover, Fran mentioned that she believed that engaging in self-reflection in regard to her personal life also helped to develop her sense of positivity as a teacher educator. She stated:

> Things I'm learning in parallel in my life, my personal life … makes me in a way, I hope, grow as a person and be more … respectful or try to be. I'm very aware of that. To make the other feel comfortable, I'm interested in that (ibid.).

Fran's professional life and identity as a teacher educator were therefore impacted not only by her professional experience, but also by her personal life. Through experience and personal reflection, Fran was able to adopt what she considered to be a more positive attitude in her career and this, in turn, may have influenced how she perceived herself as a teacher educator. As described above, she generally no longer felt observed or judged by her students but felt more optimistic of, confident in, and accepting of her belief that she did not need to know everything. Fran expanded on this idea by saying that she felt 'better because I'm more positive' and that she felt 'all this makes me more relaxed in class with the students' (SRI1). Thus, Fran's ability to feel more relaxed and positive about her role as a teacher educator and her desire to create a comfortable, supportive learning environment for her students appeared to be linked.

Fran also placed importance on the effect her PADs had on her students' well-being and learning. She explained that she was always consciously aware of trying to make her students feel at ease in class, and it is possible that building rapport with her students was one means in which she did this. When asked how she felt when she sensed that she had been able to create a good relationship with her students, Fran replied that if she could 'see that the students feel more comfortable … if what I can do makes them feel better and I see that they participate, that they learn, that they kind of lose this fear of participating', then she felt satisfied as a teacher educator (ibid.). One such technique to help create what Fran perceived as being a good relationship between her students and herself was by offering praise to her students when she felt they had done something well. When asked about her thoughts on giving praise, Fran answered that she believed recognizing what her students had done was imperative because it increased the confidence of her students and served to strengthen the relationship that she had with her students (SRI2). Despite this seemingly strong belief, she stated that she only occasionally received praise by her teachers while at university and she also revealed that the act of praising her students was 'not something I think about when I do it. It comes completely naturally … I never think about that in advance or afterwards. I don't even reflect on that. It's something that comes spontaneously' (ibid.). Thus, through her experience as a teacher educator, Fran may have developed and internalized her rationales for and confidence in giving praise to her students over many years without being consciously aware of doing so (SRI1, SRI2).

An additional way in which Fran showed her interest in the impact that her PADs had on her

students was by reassuring and encouraging her students in class (SRI1). She often made comments like 'This is not a test. This is not to be assessed. Don't be afraid' and 'You tell me what you think. Come on. I'm not judging you' (CO) while teaching due to the fact that she wanted to encourage her students and believed many of them, and the students at the university in general, were 'too dependent on the judgment of the teacher as if they were being constantly assessed, even in class when it's just a class activity' (SRI1). This desire to foster her students' confidence appears to have been strong in Fran as she thought that the students experienced disadvantages and suffered unnecessarily when held to an unattainable level. Fran explained:

> In this [teacher education] course, not in this subject, in the course in general, I think that there's been a stigma … That we are too self-conscious of all the mistakes we make with the language. We also self-monitor to the extreme, I would say. More than native speakers do … If we make a mistake, it's like, 'Oh my god. How did I make this mistake?' Even native speakers make mistakes. You were telling me everyone does, and I do the same in Spanish, so imagine. We are too strict with that, with the language. With speaking like a native and using the correct pronunciation and not making grammar mistakes and using the precise words. So, we are so terribly strict with the language, plus some teachers are too demanding to the point where students get lots of real problems of self-esteem. I've been told directly by students who are about to graduate, and they've had bad times (ibid.).

By making supportive comments towards her students, it seems that Fran's rationale for establishing a positive classroom environment was to help improve her students' self-confidence and to encourage them to participate more in class, irrespective of the 'native speaker' norms that had been placed on them by external actors, and thereby to create more chances for her students to learn. This excerpt also shows that while Fran did want her students to excel on her module and with the English language, she did not place as much significance on her students obtaining what others construed as 'native-like' pronunciation or grammar at the expense of her students' self-confidence and self-esteem as she viewed the 'native speaker' norm as being unrealistic in this context. Rather, she strove for her students to be precise in their English language use in an environment in which they felt comfortable enough to interact with one another and with her.

It is also possible that, as suggested above, Fran attempted to create a comfortable, supportive learning environment by building a strong relationship with her students through her use of jokes. She explained that she felt that humor could 'create a better communication between the students' themselves and between the teacher educator and the student that flowed more naturally since an environment in which humor was used feels more easygoing (SRI8). Fran

deemed her use of jokes and humor in class as appropriate and beneficial. She reasoned:

> They are not children. They are not adolescents. I don't have to set limits, so I feel comfortable in general and I think the jokes make the class more, in a way, motivating … And also, it's a way of breaking the ice, of building confidence, to have a good time at the same time because learning anything should not be so serious (SRI1).

First, she viewed her students as equal peers who deserved respect and, secondly, she considered that learning should be an enjoyable process and that 'humor is something that helps being more comfortable in a situation with other people. But anyway, I don't do it on purpose. It's something that comes out naturally' (ibid.). This indicates that Fran may have believed that joking with her students, albeit inadvertently, helped her to create a more comfortable atmosphere in which her students could learn. This comfortable atmosphere, in turn, may have enhanced Fran's sense of self as a teacher educator and influenced her PADs. Thus, it seemed that Fran felt good about herself as a teacher educator when she was able to create a comfortable and productive classroom environment by building a good relationship with her students through the use of praise and jokes.

Despite wanting her students to feel at ease in her class, Fran also explained that she desired to push her students to challenge them to tackle difficult concepts and to make them think for themselves. This belief was formed by Fran due to her own learning experience and her 'experience as being a teacher and things I think have worked on through the years' (SRI3). She stated:

> If I give them all the answers, it's all too easy … I mean I want them to feel comfortable, but I want them to have a little bit of discomfort in the sense that they have to struggle for things [laughter]. In that way, to help them think a little bit more deeply or further and find the answers themselves, not me giving them all the answers. Anyway, when they can't, well, I help them (ibid.).

Fran's conceptualization of learning was underpinned by her belief in the importance of her students thinking for themselves and arriving at answers primarily on their own. She explained that by encouraging her students to make an effort and to draw their own conclusions, what 'they are internally going through to get an answer helps in building the concepts' (ibid.). She deemed this 'struggle' that the students went through to be 'more meaningful for their learning,' and preferred it to just readily giving them the answers (SRI1). Thus, multiple types of cognitive constructs acted as internal factors (e.g. values, conceptualizations, beliefs) influenced how Fran viewed the process of learning.

One way that Fran attempted to challenge her students to engage in the process of struggling cognitively was by using the PAD of elicitation. She explained:

> Sometimes I feel that the students are looking for the precise word, term, concept, and sometimes it's from their common sense, their knowledge of the world, not necessarily from their academic knowledge and they just have to resort to more basic skills … to realize things. And they sometimes look for something more sophisticated and it's not (SRI3).

Fran appears to have held a constructivist perspective on teaching and learning and thereby encouraged her students to use their existing knowledge to make sense of and develop new concepts. Rather than merely providing her students with the correct answers, Fran used different pedagogical techniques to help elicit information from the students. She considered herself to be a very visual person and thought that many of her students were as well (SRI2). She chose to use examples, gestures, colors, and visuals as she believed these aided in her students' learning and encouraged better remembrance amongst them (SRI3). Fran seems to believe that by helping her students reach the answer by themselves through the use of elicitation, it became 'a learning experience' for the students that they would not get if Fran just provided them with the correct answers (SRI8). In spite of her belief in the use of elicitation with her students, Fran indicated that she was not entirely convinced that this helped 'in the long-run' as she observed that many students forgot what they had learned in previous terms (SRI3). Regardless of this, Fran explained that she did understand when her students forgot what they had previously learned since the course contains 'a world of concepts' (ibid.). Thus, Fran felt rewarded when she had been able to successfully create a comfortable learning environment where she was able to challenge her students to learn. She described this as being fulfilling since her goal as a teacher educator was for her students to learn (SRI1). Thus, Fran's desire to create a positive, enjoyable, and conducive setting for her students to learn and grow played a significant role underlying her rationales for using PADs in class that impacted on her students' well-being and learning.

5.3.3 Rationales – External factors

A few external factors featured in Fran's rationales for her PADs. The first issue concerned time. Fran explained that 'unfortunately, the term is too short. It's only four months' (SRI2). In the past, the program that she taught on was designed to have two terms per subject but had been shortened to only one term instead (ibid.). She explained that many teacher educators on the program found this lack of time to be problematic but that the new structure had not been decided on a departmental level, but rather by the entire faculty and, therefore, teacher educators believed they 'couldn't do anything about it' and were forced to accept the new timeline (ibid.). Fran indicated that she preferred it when the course had previously been

spread over an entire academic year as she believed the students

> could digest things better over time because … it's not only a matter of studying, taking notes, concepts, theory, but to internalize, to develop a critical view, to be able to analyze things, to design things on their own. They need to really mature over time (SRI2).

Fran felt that there was not enough time during the term for her students to adequately learn what was being taught. She believed that more time was necessary for the students to focus on and discuss the concepts in depth with her and each other. In addition to feeling burdened by the lack of time, Fran almost seemed to experience a sense of remorse over these time constraints ('I feel I never have enough time to cover everything in the way I would like to. That's the pressure I suffer the most', SRI6). Not only did this concern Fran as a teacher educator, but she also thought that the lack of time was a serious disadvantage to her students and their learning process.

Moreover, Fran reported experiencing feelings of stress caused by the shortened teaching time that was imposed by the university. This issue of time constraints affected Fran in some respects as she believed it was not possible to cover everything in a manner that she would have liked:

> Unfortunately, in class I can only evaluate one task/activity and one course book unit, nothing else. But I prefer to do one [evaluation] for each, in-depth, and not a few superficially. And while, of course, it's not the in-depth I would like but … time is a pressure (ibid.).

Fran therefore had to prioritize and rearrange what she taught and the activities she used during the course in order to help manage these time pressures:

> Usually I run out of time and they [the students] have to do all this analysis very quickly. And this year I subdivided the materials evaluation topic into four classes and a half … or a quarter. And I think it's worked better because they have more time to discuss and see more in depth the concepts. And I think the timing was good (SRI3).

While the issue of time constraints revealed that Fran was a resourceful teacher educator who could restructure her course to meet the needs of both her students and the university, the frequency in which Fran mentioned her desire to have more time to go into further depth while teaching suggests that time was not always perceived as being a positive aspect for her as a teacher educator.

One particular consequence of the time pressures Fran underwent was that she needed to remove material (e.g. creating a test) from the module syllabus that she would have liked to

go over. When asked how she felt about having to remove test making from this module, Fran stated that she did not 'feel very well' in doing this as she thought her students would be missing extra practice in regard to an essential part of the curriculum (SRI7). She also indicated that she believed she did not have any other option besides this to help alleviate the time pressures she experienced (ibid.). Fran elaborated:

> I think it's very good for them to go through the experience of making a test. That is when they start realizing how difficult it is, and all the things you need to take into account. And I think it's a great opportunity. The problem is that in the next term they have [name of another subject], which is teaching practice for primary and in their case … they've never designed a test. And they will have to design a test as part of the requirements. So, they will have to do it without ever having done it and it will be much more difficult. It will be individual, and they never had the least feedback for doing it, like a rehearsal I would say. This is very good to do it in this subject (ibid.).

While Fran managed to rearrange her course in order to accommodate for time-related issues, she did not always feel comfortable or content with her decisions and thought that her students were, therefore, at a disadvantage. Also, in spite of the changes that she made, Fran indicated that she still felt stressed due to a lack of time since she was always very 'conscious about the time pressure' (SRI6). She believed that, though her students were not concerned about the timetable, she knew what had to be accomplished in order to stay on schedule (ibid.). For example, she explained that she was not able to spend more time going over specific issues in greater depth in class as she thought that would make her fall 'behind with the other topics' (ibid.). Moreover, Fran indicated that she would have liked to reinforce difficult concepts with her students, especially prior to assessments, but she felt she could not do this due to the limited amount of teaching time. She felt as though she did not 'have time to go over all the concepts again' with the students and, therefore, she attempted to preemptively 'predict the problematic areas and deal with them in class' (SRI3). This time-related pressure was highlighted during one particular occurrence in which Fran was unable to finish everything she desired to cover during a specific class period in spite of pressing her students to participate in a timely manner. She recounted feeling:

> Not stressed, but I wanted to press them a little and I really wanted to see if it could be accelerated more. Because I really wanted to reach to the other part. Anyway, I sorted it out in the end by sending them something through Facebook (SRI4).

Throughout the observation process, when she experienced moments of pressure such as the one described above, Fran appeared to remain poised as she did not exhibit any physical displays commonly associated with discomfort or anxiety (e.g. shaking, stuttering). She accepted that there were limitations to what could be covered, and while she would have

preferred to cover more, and in more depth, this did not negatively impact how she perceived herself as teacher educator. Rather, Fran developed means to counteract issues related to timing such as reorganizing what she taught during the term or using Facebook to inform her students of essential information that she was unable to convey during the class period.

Furthermore, despite all the time constraints, Fran still strove to put her students' learning needs first. For example, Fran described a student who she thought needed more time to process the information that had been presented in class. In giving the student who was struggling more time, Fran explained that she realized it was essential 'to be more patient than with others, because some students need more time, or they don't realize easily' (SRI8). Thus, while time-related issues did exist for Fran, she still felt it was imperative to give her students adequate time to process information when it was truly needed, even if that meant she would have less time to cover other teaching points in the future.

Despite having these PADs to deal with pressure and not outwardly showing signs of how pressure made her feel, Fran did mention the issue of timing and the importance of prioritization on multiple occasions during the data collection process. When asked to describe specifically what caused time-related pressure for her, Fran stated:

> Because in a term, it's so hard to cover four topics. Four big topics in one term. If we talked about percentages, I would like to cover at least 70% of the class doing the practical work. That would be the aim of my classes, more practical work. Sometimes I end up using 50 or 75% of the time on theory because they [the students] haven't read enough, or they don't have the ideas clear and they can't do the analysis if they don't have the theory more or less … Then I end up using maybe 50 or 30% of the class on the practical part. I'm always traveling with that tension, in time and percentages (SRI6).

Fran reported that while she valued focusing on both theoretical concepts and practical applications, she would have rather spent more time on the practical aspects of teaching (as shown in Section 5.2.2) (SRI2). However, because of issues related to time, she knew it was not possible to 'focus on everything' and, therefore, made the choice to prioritize what she would cover in class (ibid.). One noteworthy example of Fran's use of prioritization and restructuring occurred during the observation process when there was a very large storm in the city where the university was located. This storm caused severe localized flooding and damage due to the wind, so the university was forced to close for a few days. One of Fran's classes fell during this period and she therefore explained that she and her co-teacher had 'to be flexible and that's it. We have no other choice. We can't make up for lost classes. The

problem is timing for the students because they have other subjects and we don't have rooms' (SRI7). Fran and her co-teacher were forced to restructure what would be taught after the storm interrupted their teaching syllabus. She continued:

> [Fran and her co-teacher] had to take things out of the schedule in fact, because if not, we can't cover everything. We can't teach extra classes. That's the problem because of time, because of space … So, all this problem with the storm is a mess for us because we both missed classes. She and I. So, we have to restructure everything … So, we decided we could do more of test analysis well, better, and do away with test design because there's not enough time, and to start and to not finish is useless completely (ibid.).

While Fran did not like having to remove the aspect of test design from her class, she decided that it was more important to restructure her teaching so that she could focus on one aspect in-depth rather than on two points superficially. An additional way in which Fran prioritized her teaching due to time-related issues was by shortening materials that she had planned on using in class. She described that she abbreviated 'some of the worksheets so that we [Fran and the students] make the most of some parts that … have more relevance' (SRI6). She further explained that she chose to 'devote more valuable time' to discuss what she perceived to be the most important in a more comprehensive manner 'rather than covering many more things and doing them more superficially' (ibid.). In actively using restructuring and prioritization, Fran reported that she felt less time-related pressure and believed that her timing was 'working better this year … I feel that I am more satisfied with that time attention' (ibid.). Thus, while on the surface it did not appear that time-related issues and pressure negatively influenced Fran's PADs, her PADs were indeed linked to the issue of time and how she chose to manage it.

The second main factor that influenced Fran's PAD rationales was in regard to the chaotic context in which she believed she taught. First, class time was often interrupted at the university where Fran worked due to, for example, strikes and class cancellations. However, Fran seemed to accept these interruptions and described that there was 'always something' going on, that she was 'used to these unexpected things' and was able to cope with them by being adaptable and flexible (SRI7). Additionally, Fran believed that being a teacher educator at a national university was 'an important job' since these institutions carry a high reputation for teaching quality in Argentina (SRI5). Due to this reputation, she said she continued to desire to work in the chaotic environment explained above (ibid.). Fran stated that she would sometimes feel angry or frustrated due to these outside influences but ultimately accepted them ('What can you do? You can't control life', SRI7). She therefore tried to not let these

influences directly affect her teaching or her perception of herself as a teacher educator. This shows that Fran was willing and able to accept the conditions in which she taught, as opposed to adapting to challenging situations as described previously (i.e. change her syllabus due to time issues), in the face of a challenging work environment and that she tried not to let these factors impact her attitude towards teaching.

In spite of Fran having a positive attitude towards dealing with the chaotic context where she worked, there was one example in particular that seemed to greatly frustrate and anger Fran, and thereby may have had an influence on her PADs. During one class period the heater in the classroom was not turned on though it had been cold for several days. Fran discussed the problem with an administrator while in class, and although the situation was eventually resolved temporarily, she was clearly upset by this issue. When asked to describe what had occurred, Fran explained:

> I was definitely cross … Every year there's no heating … And it's so unfair to everyone, to the teachers, to the students, to teaching, to the university. I'm really fed up … every year I complain about this with the person supposed to be in charge at the faculty. But they always … blame it on somebody else. The system is a disaster. Nobody is in charge in the end, so it's always the same. There's never an answer. Maybe it works for a bit, maybe it works in some classrooms. It doesn't work in most of the classrooms. There is a heater which is really, not the central heating system, but it's a heater which is completely dirty, which deposits, that horrible smell, and we had to turn it off and open everything because we couldn't stand that smell. Then it got colder … It puts me off completely. Every year … it's not something that happens now, so it's like you go on accumulating anger, rage (SRI5).

This instance proved to be quite significant for Fran and thereby led to an in-depth discussion on what she perceived the role of the university should be. She felt as though this situation exemplified ‘a total lack of respect to the teachers and students, to everyone, to a human being because it's inhuman’ to work and study in an environment that was not hospitable (ibid.). When Fran was asked if she felt supported by the university in situations such as the one described above, she replied ‘I don't think so, because in the end, nothing's done. Nobody cares. That's the point. Nobody cares, really’ (ibid.). She was then asked how she felt working in an environment that she viewed as not valuing her as a teacher or as a person. Fran explained she felt that the context was very impersonal and that ‘nobody really responds to authority or takes full responsibility’ and that this ultimately negatively affected both herself and her students (ibid.). She accounted for what she thought caused this lack of responsibility:

> It’s a state institution … you don't own it. However, those in charge will never get

> called because they have their offices with the heaters … Nobody owns anything, nobody cares, but they never lack anything, and the others, below them, always suffer the consequences' (SRI5).

She further stated:

> It's an issue and it's been an issue for years. Decades. And everyone complains and nobody … does anything because it's the policy. Unfortunately, the policies and politics in this country are like that. They couldn't care less. That's why I say lack of respect. It's that they don't respect human beings suffering from something that should not be an issue. We're teaching in a place like this which is very cold in the winter…Get it done. Such inefficiency (ibid.).

Fran was upset mainly because she felt that no one in authority cared about her or her students' needs. To her, these working conditions altered her attitude and mood in this class: 'Yes, it does influence because my mood is different and that sets a different atmosphere … My mood will influence the class' (ibid.). She also thought that her reaction to and her mood in this situation may have surprised and momentarily influenced her students, as she did not normally display such strong emotions while in class (ibid.). In spite of her usually positive outlook and her intense familiarity with the environment, and even though Fran continued teaching her class in a professional manner, she did not believe the chaotic environment produced a productive atmosphere for her to work in or for her students to learn in as everyone was primarily focused on how cold it was and on staying warm:

> I get easily cold, so I complain more maybe. Or, I get sick, which is worse, of course. And I say it also, 'Look, if I'm absent because I'm sick everyone loses, so what's best?' … I will be here pleasantly teaching, not complaining. Everyone will be happy doing what we have to do. Not thinking about how cold we are. Because in the end, who can profit from a class if you think only about the cold? … It interferes with teaching (ibid.).

Thus, it seems that external influences, such as a lack of heating or feeling disrespected by colleagues and the working environment, did have the ability interfere with Fran's teaching and did have the power to affect her opinion of herself in her role as a teacher educator.

The last factor that had an effect on Fran's rationales for her PADs was in regard to classroom management. Students had a tendency to arrive late to Fran's class. During one class, multiple students were tardy and came into the classroom at staggered intervals over an eight-minute period. Fran stated that she 'was a bit pissed off … because the class was interrupted several times for the latecomers' and, therefore, she felt as if 'it was a waste' and that 'many minutes were lost' since she 'had to repeat things a few times' (SRI3). When asked if she believed her students were aware of her annoyance in the situation, Fran stated: 'I think so because usually, I'm not like that. I think they noticed' (ibid.). Fran also explained

that while she did feel annoyed, this was only at the very beginning of the class and that she was eventually able to overcome this emotion (SRI3). As mentioned above, Fran experienced pressure due to the limited amount of time that she had with this class, so the fact that she had to go over the same information multiple times for late students clearly upset her.

In addition to classroom management issues with her students, Fran's rationales for her PADs had been influenced by the interaction with students that she perceived as being difficult to work with. On a couple of occasions, Fran appeared to struggle slightly in regard to what she perceived as challenging behavior and attitudes from specific students. One such example occurred when a student posed a question during class, and despite Fran's efforts to answer this question, the student seemingly would not accept her response as valid (SRI2). Fran explained:

> I was not planning to explain the concept of the task cycle by Willis today because I wanted to finish. I had pressure with time, and I wanted to finish with task adaptation, and I had to do that extremely quickly because this took me so long with this girl. It was completely unexpected. I mean, I could explain it because I had explained it the previous class … It's not that I felt unprepared or I couldn't do it. I was concerned more about timing because I wanted to round off this class with that because I have two classes for a course book unit evaluation and I really wanted to round it up today with task evaluation and adaptation. But, well, if they ask, they don't understand, well, it's my job to explain. Maybe it took too long and if I could have provided another solution, because I could have told her, 'Read this at home, task cycle thing, chart, diagram' (ibid.).

Though she had not anticipated these questions and in spite of being consciously aware of the time-related constraints she faced, Fran was willing to go back over a concept that she felt had already been adequately explained for her student as she believed it was her responsibility as a teacher educator. As discussed previously, Fran preferred to go over fewer items in more depth and thus was willing to adapt what she had planned for this class period as she wanted to finish rounding off this task completely and to ensure that all of her students understood it. When asked about this occurrence and how it made her feel about herself as a teacher educator, Fran stated:

> I didn't feel very comfortable because I don't know if she [the student] was not too open to the explanations. That's the feeling I had at one point, I don't know why. I guess she was stubbornly asking. I don't know … but really, I don't know if she was really paying a lot of attention to the examples I was giving. I think they were clear, but I don't know if she truly didn't understand. I am not in her mind, I don't know (ibid.).

This shows how Fran felt at the moment when she considered one of her students was

challenging her. Fran did not enjoy this interaction, which might suggest that her sense of self as a teacher educator may have been affected, even if only temporarily, but accepted it as part of her role as a teacher educator.

Another example of Fran interacting with a student she perceived to be difficult arose during an in-class oral assessment. During this situation, Fran offered the student an alternative answer to what he had given, and he proceeded to insist that he was correct. Fran described her thoughts on the interaction with this student and her opinions of his behavior and attitude in great detail:

> He gets stubborn. He doesn't listen, that's what makes me mad because he's a student at the university and he's not humble at all. He has an opinion and he will defend it … but when he has an idea, he becomes rigid. He doesn't listen, and he won't agree with what you say. He will fight for his ideas and he speaks louder. I don't like that attitude. I'm sorry, but you have to listen and also observe another point of view, not just yours. I'm the teacher, also, so excuse me but I'm not always right and I accept other viewpoints. I try to be flexible. I try to see if what he's saying is possible. I'm not like blunt, 'No, this is not right.' But he gets too stubborn with what he thinks and he won't open up. That's what makes me mad because, as a teacher, imagine when he becomes a teacher. With that attitude, he will confront lots of problems because the students may also have the same attitude. If he's stuck in one position, I'm sorry but there has to be some flexibility. I personally believe this. As a future teacher, he will have to lower his arrogance or whatever he has because he doesn't listen. He wants to be right, always (SRI7).

This excerpt illustrates how internal (e.g. conceptualizations, beliefs) and external (e.g. student attitude) factors interact in a complex manner and impact Fran, as a teacher educator, and her PADs. There are several incorporated aspects that need to be discussed. Firstly, there is Fran's conceptualization of how students and teacher educators should act in an academic context. She explained that students should be flexible and have a humble attitude and that teachers need to understand that they are not always correct. Fran also described that both parties, students and teachers, need to be willing to listen to and respect each other and to entertain others' points of view in a calm, supportive manner. Secondly, this quote shows that Fran contemplates the future selves of her students as teachers. She appears to believe that it is imperative for her students to understand the importance of being flexible and to consider the viewpoints as others, characteristics which she seems to view as essential for teachers to have. Moreover, Fran felt challenged by trying to 'divide or to identify … what he [the student] says and the attitude' that he had (ibid.). This was because she believed that her students' attitudes had an effect on her either 'consciously or unconsciously, because I'm a human being. Beyond being a teacher, first I'm a person [laughter], and for me, attitudes are

very important' (SRI7). Fran felt the student was not open to communicating with her in what she deemed a respectful manner and thus she equated working with him as being 'like trying to reach a wall that is closed' (ibid.). She continued to explain that while she did not find her interactions with this student to be 'a comfortable situation' for her, she was not opposed to interacting with him (ibid.). When asked if she felt if interacting with this student was burdensome, Fran replied that she did not think so, but that she accepted that she must work with him even though she did not enjoy doing so (ibid.). Fran was frustrated when dealing with students she perceived to be difficult and did not tend to find these types of experiences pleasurable. Thus, coming into contact with difficult student behavior and attitudes caused a lack of comfort for Fran and this, in turn, played a role in influencing her rationales for making certain PADs.

5.3 Ines

5.3.1 Background

Ines was an Argentinian female in her early 50s who spoke Spanish as a first language and was fluent in English. Ines stated that she loved her career and had always enjoyed teaching (BI). She was highly experienced at teaching EFL and had been doing so for approximately 26 years. Despite having taught in various contexts to various levels and age groups over her career, Ines indicated that she preferred teaching students aged 15 years and older. She began studying English at the age of nine and worked with a personal English tutor until she was 18. She graduated from an English-language teacher education course at an Argentinian state university and studied for an MA degree in Hispanic and Latin American literature but chose not to write the thesis for this degree. At the time of data collection, Ines had decided to return to postgraduate studies as she deemed an advanced degree necessary 'in order to get a higher position' as a teacher educator and was in the midst of completing an MA degree which focused on English language and literature from another Argentinian state university (BI).

Ines was observed on one of the three modules she taught at a large, state university in Argentina where she had been working for approximately 22 years. Each of her modules focused on English literature but was designed for students in different years of study. The module in which Ines was observed for the present study consisted principally of seminar style classes, where she tried to promote participation and dialogue amongst her students through group work and class discussions, and of in-class assessments and exams. Ines taught

one-third of this module in conjunction with two other teacher educators. Her portion of the module took place once a week for two hours and started with approximately 28 students but decreased in size by approximately 10 students over the term (BI). Ines' classes focused on building reading comprehension of English literature by using 'close reading and analysis' and by 'asking students about their opinion' of novels and short stories (ibid.). Ines expressed that while she viewed herself as an English teacher, she chose to define herself 'as a literature teacher' as she focused more attention on literature and 'reading comprehension' than on the English language portion of the module's content (SRI2). She described:

> They [the students] have to read literature, they have to read essays, they have to read articles and they have to differentiate the literary discourse from journalistic discourse and all that. So, what I want to emphasize is that fact that there is meaning beyond words in literature. There is something else. If you read something, it is not that only. There is something behind, underneath' (ibid.).

Ines, therefore, wanted her students to read for meaning and viewed literature as being 'special' as she believed 'people appreciate some aspect of literature, like it or love it, and feel engaged with that. It is not like teaching grammar' (BI). To her, literature had the ability to 'help the students grow' analytically academically and to enrich them culturally. In order to focus on literary discourse and the analysis of meaning, Ines wanted her students to read the novel *To Kill a Mockingbird* and two short stories, although this proved to be impossible due to the external factors that presented themselves during the term (see Section 5.3.3) and was, therefore, only able to finish the novel and one short story during this term. Ines stated that now she devoted more time to discussing the novel than she had in previous years (SRI4):

> I went through the plot in two or three classes, and characters and style all together. So, the students were supposed to finish the novel and we would deal with the novel as a whole as we do in literature … Read parts and deal with the novel in three classes. Then, we realized that it was not enough … This is the first novel they [the students] ever read at university. Even if they take [names of other pre-university level courses] they read short stories, they don't read a novel. So, I decided to split the novel into several classes and teach an introduction of the first two chapters, and then more or less three or four chapters each class. And devote time to reading parts.

Ines allocated more time for reading sections of the novel in class as she believed this would help her students arrive at a better understanding of the meaning of the story and of how to engage in the process of literary analysis. This was important to Ines as she did not just 'want to tell the students what the chapter is about' but preferred if her students were actively engaged in the literary analysis, and thus their own learning, throughout the entire process (ibid.).

In terms of her teaching style, Ines explained that she did not like teaching in what she described as a 'traditional style' (BI). Rather, she attempted to emulate the teachers she had in her past that she described as 'good teachers' (ibid.). These teachers 'were enthusiastic, who liked what they did, who let students participate and be part of the class. Those teachers…were really involved in their classes and they had prepared their classes really well and they could answer questions' (ibid.). One way in which Ines became involved in her class and with her students was by engaging with the PAD of conducting an interview in Spanish at the beginning of the year with each student on her portion of the module (SRI6). She did this because she 'wanted to know where they studied English, why they are here, if they are 18 years old or if they studied another career and now they are studying English…to get to know them a little bit' (ibid.). By doing this, Ines thought that it showed that she was interested in who her students were as individuals and believed that this information provided valuable information to her as a teacher educator and gave her the opportunity to build a strong relationship with her students. In addition to being enthusiastic and involved with her students and using techniques such as pre-module interviews, Ines believed that overtime her teaching style had changed:

> I think the older I get, the less strict I get … Most probably it had to do with my son and daughter being university students. So, I see things from both sides. I try to put myself in the shoes of the students. I don't mean I will pass everybody, but I try to consider special situations and give them a chance for the time being (SRI1).

This excerpt shows how Ines' understanding of herself in the role of a teacher educator has evolved over time and dues to a major change she experienced in her personal life (i.e. having children). Thus, due to this evolution, her choice of PADs has also changed.

Ines stated that she did not receive any regular, formal feedback or evaluations regarding her teaching in this context even though she would have liked to (BI). She explained, however, that she did have some sort of support network in which she and her 'colleagues in the same subject' were in regular contact via email and 'a WhatsApp group' and had a meeting pre- and post-term (ibid.). Ines described that, as of the time of data collection for the present study, the aspect that she, as a teacher educator, enjoyed most of the act of teaching was 'being in front of the students and talking to them' (ibid.). Conversely, she did not like correcting students, although she knew that it was essential to do so, or the pressure placed on her by the university to research, publish, and present (ibid.) as she believed that the onus placed on research by the university created an environment in which teaching came 'second' (SRI6). Furthermore, Ines explained that some externally imposed policies, either at the

university or government levels, impacted on her teaching. While some of her students had studied English for many years and were able to pass the module on which she taught, others had only been studying English for a few years or learned because 'they loved the language, so they watched movies and they read and they chatted, and they watched YouTube programs … they listened to music, looked up words' (SRI6). Despite the motivation and dedication of these self-taught students, some were unable to meet the demands placed on them by the teacher education course (ibid.). This created a complex situation for the teacher educators on this program:

> On the one hand, we cannot lower the level of English we require. So, as a consequence, there will be more students that will fail. Or there will be more students who have to take [names of courses]. And the level of many students will be more basic. But on the other hand, they are hard workers (ibid).

Ines explained that the university was responsible for upholding educational directives set in place by the Argentinian government. Ines described:

> That's a problem we have … we cannot pass those students. But at the same time there is a whole education, from the government, let's say policy, that we have to try to keep students at university. They tell us that we have to try and help students so that they don't quit university. So, that they keep studying at university (ibid.).

She continued:

> I understand the government policy. They don't tell us that we have to keep students at any cost. They tell us that we have to find out how to help students improve. So, they suggest making some things easier. Mostly as to regulations and give them options to study at night or in the morning if they work. Try to, if they want to study at university, make things easier for those students who work and who cannot take many subjects at the same time. To give them the possibility to take less subjects. Things like that (ibid.).

While Ines stated that she understood the government policy and its objectives, she indicated that she nonetheless felt a sense of conflict between it and helping to retain students who did not have a high enough level of English for the program. Moreover, Ines believed that there was a discrepancy between the level of English required by other teacher educators on the university's teacher training course and the students' actual level of English. She voiced her opinion on this: 'the requirements are too high. And that frustrates students. And that's why they quit and that's why we have just a few graduates every year' (ibid.). Ines believed that the level of English that was required for the subject she taught was 'quite right' but did not think that her colleagues always gauged the appropriate level correctly. Therefore, Ines knew that the level of English required for the teacher education course may be too high in some cases, and this in turn affected the students' motivation level to continue studying. Ines

believed that to combat this was the responsibility of teacher educators to adapt their classes to a more appropriate level for their students.

5.3.2 Rationales – Internal factors

Several internal factors appeared to influence Ines' rationales behind her PADs. First was her belief that she was sometimes self-conscious as a teacher educator. According to Ines, she suffered from insecurities, though, she believed others often did not associate her with having 'low self-esteem' or being self-conscious as she thought it did not show in her classes (SRI2). Moreover, Ines explained that she viewed herself 'like … another person while in class' and that she tried not to make it apparent to her students when she experienced moments where she felt self-conscious or insecure (ibid.). Ines gave an example of an action that she did consciously and consistently but always felt rather uncomfortable about doing:

> There is something I am self-conscious about that I do on purpose. That is walk. Move in the classroom. I generally do that, but I don't like sitting. I know that sitting at the level of the students makes them comfortable because you are not up there. Or at least that is what we were taught when we were taught (SRI1).

Ines explained that she should remain seated during her classes and not walk around as she had learned that sitting down while teaching would make the students feel more comfortable as the teacher educator would be at the same height as the students. She indicated that she personally felt more comfortable moving around while teaching and was aware that there was a conflict between what she was taught when she was studying on the teacher education program and the PAD she preferred engaging in. This tension, therefore, may have acted as a trigger for her to experience moments in which she perceived herself as feeling self-consciousness. Further evidence of Ines' sense of self-consciousness was her not wanting to make mistakes or look unprepared in front of her students. Ines mentioned:

> I don't like making mistakes. I would rather avoid the situation. But if I make a mistake, I try not to feel bad. And I try not to let the students know that I feel I made a big mistake (ibid.).

On a couple of occasions during data collection, Ines explained that she did not enjoy instances when she perceived she had made an error in class and, therefore, she did not want her students to be aware of such mistakes. For example, Ines once felt she had made a mistake when things did not go as she had planned during class (SRI3). Initially, Ines decided not to discuss 'the para-textual features of this novel', but once in class, she did so (ibid.). This did not pose a problem for Ines until she looked at her teaching assistant and realized:

> 'I shouldn't have said this' … Because before coming to class we talked about what I

> would do and what he [teaching assistant] would do. And I told him that I would omit the para-textual part and would focus on chapters one to five. Something like that and I barely covered half of chapter two … He was looking at me like, 'What are you doing? You said you would do something different because we don't have much time'. So, yeah. That wasn't good (SRI3).

At the time of this realization I observed Ines also make a comment to herself that she had made a mistake during this instance (CO). When asked how she perceived this event, Ines stated that she tried 'not to reveal' when she did something that she had not intended to do (SRI3). She further explained:

> I wanted to finish this as soon as possible because I thought, 'Ah, I shouldn't have said that'. I felt I shouldn't have said that because I was, on the one hand, diverting my attention to [name of teaching assistant] and, on the other hand, because that was showing a kind of weakness. I shouldn't have said, 'Oh, this is not part of my plan' … I don't know what was their [the students'] impression - that their teacher wasn't doing what she should have done? Or maybe that was a sign of familiarity? No, I shouldn't have said that (ibid.).

This excerpt illustrates that Ines was concerned with being observed as weak by her students, which seemed to make her feel poorly about herself as a teacher educator, particularly when she thought she had made an error while teaching in class. Therefore, it appeared that Ines' PADs changed, and she attempted to quickly move through what she perceived as an uncomfortable situation created by her deviation from the lesson plan and her comment to herself about it. This indicates that Ines felt as if she had said and done things that she should not have, or revealed what she perceived as a weakness to her students, and that she was bothered by this. In spite of these feelings, it was unclear if the students took notice of Ines' perceived mistake or her comment.

Ines' dislike for making mistakes in class could also be seen in instances when she felt as though she became 'stuck' searching for a specific lexical item (ibid.). She explained:

> Sometimes, if I get really stuck, I try to offer, or to use, some synonyms or define some words. If that takes time, if I get stuck and I cannot find the word for some minutes, I think that then I get uncomfortable. If students come up with the word and it is almost instantaneous, I can go on (ibid.).

Ines preferred when her students offered suggestions or to directly ask her students for help when she struggled to find a specific word than to allow her discomfort to grow by spending time continuing to search for it. This seems to align with her preference to move quickly past what she perceived as uncomfortable situations in class. Ines also stated that she believed asking her students for help in such situations helped to show 'some humanity in a teacher'

and ‘that the teacher is a person, not a native speaker’ (SRI3). Ines elaborated on this by explaining that she thought that by asking others for help locating a specific lexical item ‘shows them [the students] that I am not a native speaker. That I don’t want to impersonate someone I am not. Though I am a teacher I don’t know everything. So, I can make a mistake. And sometimes I don’t remember words’ (ibid.). This quotation is important for two reasons. Firstly, it indicates that Ines was very aware of the issue of native-speakerism and felt as though she could not be considered as a ‘native speaker’ of English as it was not her mother tongue. She also seemed to tie native-speakerism to not making mistakes with the language. This is not to insinuate that Ines thought she was allowed to make mistakes with the English language since Spanish was her mother tongue, as she did not explicitly state this. However, it seems that this connection may in fact underlie her beliefs on native-speakerism. Secondly, she wanted to show her students that she was human and that it was acceptable for her to occasionally forget words, have gaps in her knowledge, and to sometimes error in class, although this does not signify that Ines did not feel uncomfortable when she could not recall specific vocabulary in front of her students (ibid.). Ines reported that, with time and experience, she felt she became ‘less self-conscious’ when she did not know the answer to a question or made a mistake in class (SRI1). This was due to her belief that teacher educators were allowed to make mistakes and to not know everything:

> I have always tried to tell students that I didn't know everything. I am not a walking dictionary I tell them. If we need to look up a word, we look it up. I am not going to lie to you (ibid.).

Ines wanted the students to know that she sometimes made mistakes, acknowledged her own limitations as a teacher educator, and that this was acceptable. Therefore, whether she was aware of this or not, there appeared to be some tensions between Ines’ beliefs about herself as a teacher educator in that she believed it was acceptable for her, and other teacher educators, to make mistakes while in class and yet, she clearly felt uncomfortable in such situations. This tension seemed to influence Ines’ choices of PADs in that sometimes she felt more comfortable relying on her students for help in certain situations, while in other instances she hurriedly moved past moments that challenged her sense of security in herself as a teacher educator.

One way in which Ines demonstrated that she was comfortable and did feel confident in herself in her role, in spite of the tensions that had emerged, was by revealing to her students that it was necessary for her, as the teacher educator, to prepare for class. She did this by

showing her students how she had engaged in the PADs of making in-book notations (see Figure 3 for a photo of such notations) and creating detailed teaching notes which included the use of 'colors, arrows, highlighted parts' (see Figure 4 for a photo on the following page) (SRI1). She expressed:

> I am your teacher and I have to do this. I have to look up words. I underline important parts and you have to do the same. So, I am showing you want I did … So, this is what you have to do (ibid.).

By drawing her students' attention to how she prepared for class, Ines explained that even though she was the teacher educator, she still had to prepare for her lessons and, therefore, hoped her students would be encouraged to also partake in similar actions prior to class. This also aligns with Ines' belief that teacher educators are allowed to make mistakes in class, as discussed previously. It thus appears that what Ines thought and her beliefs had a direct impact on the PADs she utilized in order to address perceived uncomfortable situations in class and bolster her confidence as a teacher educator.

Figure 3: Ines' in-book notations

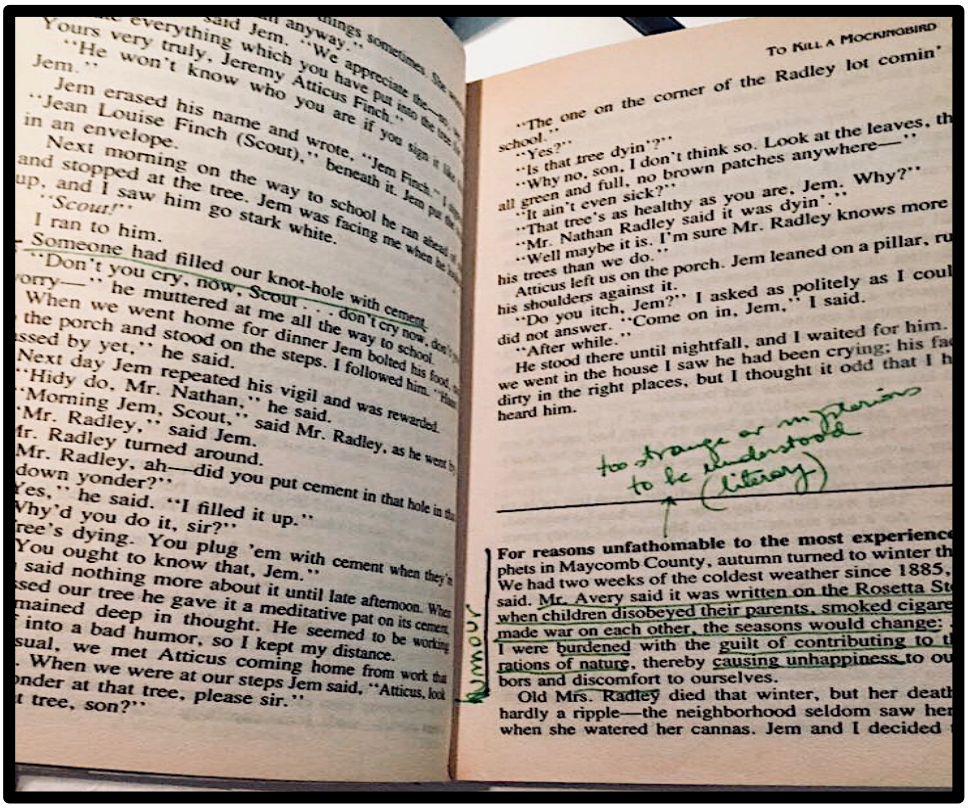
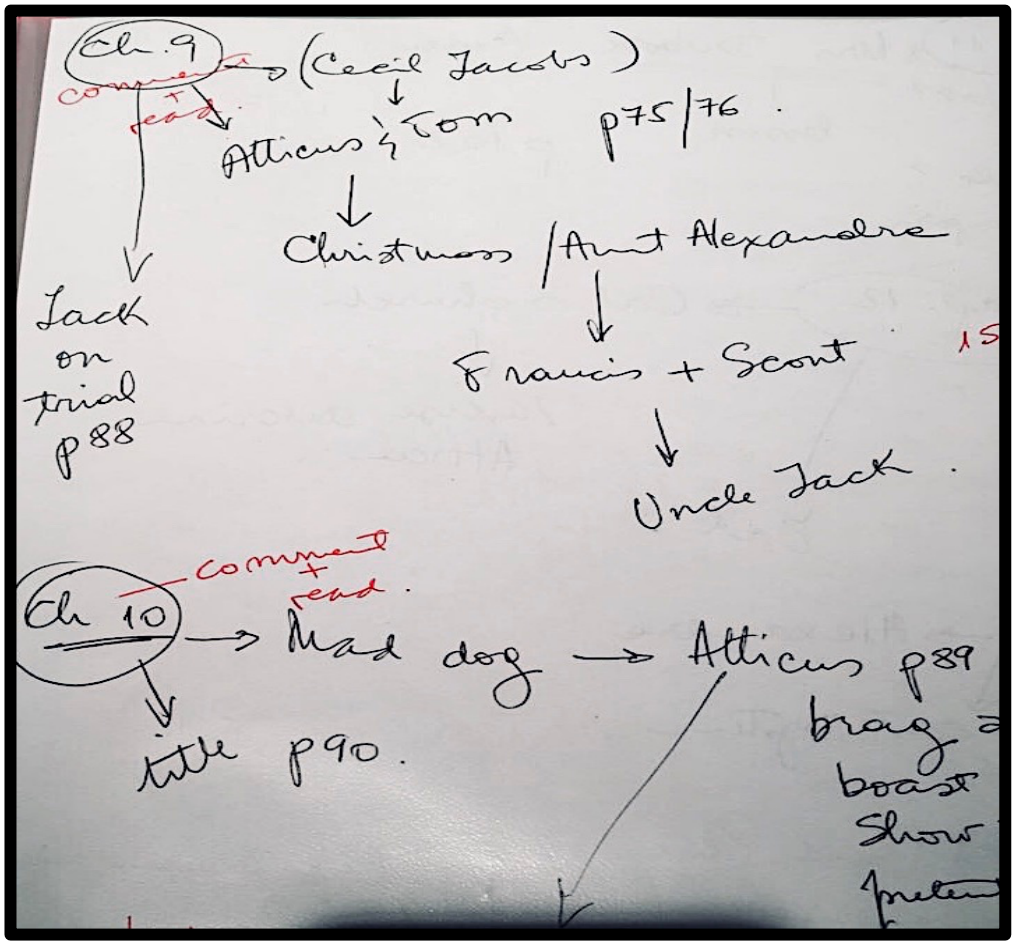


Figure 4: Ines' teaching notes



The second internal factor that influenced Ines' PADs was her desire to create a comfortable learning environment for her students. Ines sensed that her students initially felt uncomfortable in class for several reasons:

> This is their first year at university. They don't know each other. And, as I told you, this is not their language. It is difficult to express themselves in English. And they are afraid of making mistakes. Because they think that the other students will criticize them. And they feel that they don't have the necessary ability or level to be there. They don't want to make mistakes (SRI1).

This, once again, shows that native-speakerism played a role in influencing Ines' rationales for her PADs in that she seemed to be uncertain as to who had the ownership of the English language. In order to tackle what Ines perceived as her students' discomfort with speaking in class, whether it was actually due to native-speakerism or not, Ines endeavored to create a comfortable classroom atmosphere through the use of several PADS: providing encouragement, reading aloud, and giving examples. First, Ines attempted to make her students feel comfortable within her classroom by providing them with encouragement. Ines

hoped that by encouraging her students and helping them feel more at ease, they would worry less about making mistakes due to their accents or not, and thereby participate more while in class (SRI1). Ines made the following comparison to describe why this was imperative:

> I always tell them that if you want to run a marathon, you have to run every day. You can't run a marathon without running. So, they have to speak, they cannot sit for exams if they don't speak in class (ibid.).

To Ines, speaking practice was essential for her students' success on this module. It was, therefore, often necessary for her to provide encouraging comments to her students to foster their oral participation in class. During one observation Ines told her students 'Guys, don't be so self-conscious, we all have an accent. Go on' in an attempt to persuade her students to speak in class (CO). This quote is interesting because she seemed to assume that her students did not participate because they had an accent. It, however, says more about her conceptualizations of native-speakerism and of herself as a former learner and present teacher educator of the English language than about her students. Encouraging her students to feel comfortable to participate in class was important to Ines as she did not want her students 'to think that their English' was not 'good enough to speak in class' (SRI1). Instead, she intended to show them that their level of English was appropriate and that having an accent was acceptable. She explained:

> When I was a student the teachers wanted to imitate native speakers. But nowadays there is a new tendency of international English. And we realize - we are speaking English - we realize that we have an accent. So, we can be modelled for the student at a certain point. Nobody will speak like the Queen. We are Argentinians. I will not speak like you [the researcher] speak, obviously. So, I want them to realize that I will not criticize them if they don't pronounce well. I try to help. You saw that some of them mispronounced words and I did not stop them … and I did not provide the good pronunciation - the correct pronunciation. Because I want them to read, to be more self-confident (ibid.).

This selection, again, addresses Ines' conceptualizations of native-speakerism and what it construes. Ines believed that she and her students all had accents as they were Argentinians speaking an international variety of English as a second/additional language and that having an accent should not impede them from speaking and participating in class. Thus, she offered comments about accents with the intention of encouraging her students and helping them to not feel so self-conscious while speaking. It is interesting to note that while she explains that she believes it is acceptable for her and her students to have accents and their own Argentinian variety of English, she stated that she would not be able to 'provide the good pronunciation – the correct pronunciation' as she seemed to believe that she could not be

considered a 'native speaker' of English. This, however, appears to be in direct conflict with her beliefs in the acceptance of making mistakes with grammar or pronunciation, thereby highlighting tensions and incongruities between what Ines said she believed and what she did in class.

Another way in which Ines tried to construct a comfortable atmosphere for her students to learn in was by giving them the opportunity to partake in the student-centered approach of reading aloud in class. Ines thought that this technique tended to produce more student participation as the students were 'on alert' since they did not know who would be called on next to read aloud (SRI6). Ines also liked this technique as she felt the classes were more engaging for the students and that they 'would concentrate more' when they were allowed to, or heard a fellow classmate, read aloud (ibid.). Moreover, Ines used reading-aloud as a means to 'correct pronunciation' as she believed it allowed the students to communicate 'orally but with the book so they are more self-confident' (ibid.). She did not want her students to feel 'nervous' or 'exposed' in class and, although it may seem inconsistent, she thought that asking her students to read aloud and correcting their pronunciation would her achieve this (ibid.). Thus, she used this technique as she believed it allowed her students' to 'get accustomed to speaking and reading' so that they could 'confident and less ashamed of reading' and speaking in English (ibid.).

Additionally, Ines purposely provided her students with detailed examples, sometimes from her own life, in an effort to create a comfortable classroom atmosphere. She engaged in this PAD because she believed it helped to form a stronger relationship between the students and her: 'I think that they will feel closer to the teacher and more comfortable' (SRI1). Ines thought that this technique gave the students the impression that she understood and empathized with them since she often used examples involving her university-aged son and daughter. She also described that she had 'softened a little' towards her students when her children started university (ibid.). Ines reasoned:

> I was sorry for students, because I thought they could be my children. Not before. But then I thought, 'Poor guys, they are going to go home and tell their mothers that they failed. Is it like my daughter telling me that she failed? That she feels sorry'. That is something that I realized. I changed emotionally (ibid.).

Ines was aware that her view of her students had changed due to her own children entering university and she felt more emotionally involved with the students as her son and daughter were approximately the same age and were going through similar experiences. Thus, Ines

identified more with her students and this influenced her rationales for her PADs as she wanted them to feel comfortable while studying with her.

In addition, Ines made an effort to provide encouraging corrections and feedback to her students. As previously noted in Section 5.3.1, she did not enjoy correcting her students even though she knew it was necessary (BI). This may be due to her own experience receiving corrections as a student, which Ines stated had occurred 'immediately most of the times' and that 'it was not in a friendly way' (SRI1). However, there was one teacher educator from her past that she had decided to emulate who approached corrections differently and would utter compassionate comments like ''Hmm, no' in a friendly way' and thus, 'students didn't feel intimidated by her corrections' (ibid.). Ines explained that she tried to act like her former teacher educator in the way she provided feedback and corrections and to 'never treat students badly if they make mistakes' (SRI7). This was especially important to Ines since the students on this module were in their first year of university study and she believed that harsh corrections and feedback had the ability to make newer students 'stop talking completely' (ibid.). Thus, it appears that what mattered most to Ines in regard to this was not whether she corrected or not, but how she engaged in the PAD of making corrections. During one classroom observation, Ines gave feedback to a student who had gone slightly off topic. She stated:

> I didn't want to tell her directly, 'No, that's wrong'. So, I said well, it didn't apply to what we were saying … I explained what I thought because I wanted to talk about something else to go on with the class, but then I went back to her many times and that was on purpose because she wanted to talk, and it was almost the first class she talked at all (ibid.).

Ines compassionately steered this student back towards the topic she had planned on discussing in class in a manner that continued to motivate this normally reluctant student to participate. When asked why she had chosen to keep calling on this student, Ines explained:

> On the one hand, because she talked, so I wanted her to contribute and feel well … And she made some mistakes, so, I said, 'Well, let's give her another opportunity' and I especially praised her…I praised her when she said something that was correct. I said, 'Yeah, you're right. Yes, I agree with you' so as to make her feel confident because she had made a couple of misinterpretations and I didn't want her to feel bad about it because I knew she would not contribute (ibid.).

Thus, Ines thought that making encouraging comments to her students while providing corrective feedback helped them to feel more comfortable and confident and were, therefore, more apt to participate in class. Another way in which Ines tried to create a comfortable

atmosphere while correcting her students was by offering help to students that were struggling. Instead of just quickly moving on to another student or telling the student that he/she was incorrect, Ines would make comments like 'Just say it and I'll help you' (CO). During one occurrence, she told a student to say what he was thinking, even if it came out imperfectly, as she wanted him to speak and 'not to feel intimidated' (SRI2). This student had participated many times before and Ines said she knew that he was capable of expressing himself but recognized that he was 'blocked' in this situation (ibid.). She also encouraged the other students to help their classmates who were struggling by saying 'Help' or 'Contribute to his answer' to actively engage the other students and she thought that in having the other students help, the student had struggled would feel less threatened than if she had automatically corrected him/her (SRI6). When she asked other students to help, though, Ines made a point to give the initial student 'credit for what he/she said' as she believed this made the student 'feel OK' about their participation (ibid.). By engaging in the PADs of helping struggling students or having the students help each other, Ines seemed to be able to create the comfortable and supportive atmosphere to learn and participate in that she desired.

Furthermore, Ines felt that it was important to gauge the correct amount and timing of corrections and feedback. This particularly applied to when the students read aloud in class. Ines thought that stopping to provide immediate corrections every time a student 'mispronounces a word or makes a mistake' would make the student feel 'ashamed' and would make him/her more reluctant to read aloud and participate in class in the future (SRI1). She tried giving both immediate and delayed corrections and feedback to her students but seemed to prefer using the delayed technique. However, Ines knew that sometimes she could not 'avoid interfering' (ibid.). She did provide immediate feedback on a couple of notable occasions during the data collection process. For example, during a classroom observation, Ines immediately corrected a student while he was reading aloud. When asked why she had done this, she explained:

> It was a big mistake compared to others … I couldn't avoid saying that. And also, because sometimes I forget. If the paragraph is long, then I forget what word I had to correct. So, in the past sometimes when students read or spoke, I had a paper and pen. I wrote the words they mispronounced. But I think that makes them self-conscious about their reading (ibid.).

Thus, Ines was willing to give immediate corrections when she deemed a student's mistake to be too important not to address immediately or when she thought that she might not remember to provide delayed feedback at a later point. Additionally, Ines engaged in

contextually appropriate pedagogies and directly corrected students who she considered would not react badly to such feedback, especially when she personally felt pressured due to time. For instance, during classroom observation, one student made a mistake to which Ines immediately responded with, 'No, it is not this, it's that' and 'Do you mean bake, make, cook? What do you mean?' (CO). When asked why she had provided corrections and feedback in this manner, she stated that she 'was in a hurry' (SRI4). Ines further explained:

> I've known [name of the student] for some years because it is not the first time she takes [name of this course] … I know that I didn't hurt her feelings. Because she knows me, I know her, and I know that by correcting many times I didn't hurt her feelings … I wanted her to organize her ideas. I don't know if I was being rude, I know I told her to stop talking, I didn't turn around and start with somebody else (ibid.).

Ines thus appeared willing to give immediate corrections to students she knew well and to students she thought could handle such feedback. In spite of this, she did not want to be perceived as having been rude. Therefore, it seemed that Ines might have equated immediate corrections with being rude but felt they were acceptable in this situation as she believed the student was comfortable in her class and because she felt time-related pressure.

5.3.3 Rationales – External factors

Throughout the data collection process, three external factors emerged that have influenced Ines' rationales for her PADs. First, the overall context played an important role. When asked if she thought that the context in which she taught in affected her as a teacher educator, Ines replied:

> Yes, definitely … I wouldn't be the same person working with adolescents … I think that one should know more when you are at university. You should have a higher academic level. So, I want to study, I want to know a lot, I want to include - especially in my literature classes - I want to include more theory in my classes…On the one hand, it influences me as a teacher … Then I would describe the context as sometimes quite hard. In the sense that not all the people at the departamento [department] are really friendly. Not all of them want to work together with others. And they are quite selfish (FUI).

The context seemed to influence Ines on a professional level. The act of working at a prestigious state university encouraged Ines to learn more and further herself academically. At the same time, however, she felt that her immediate colleagues were not always supportive, thereby creating an atmosphere that she perceived as being difficult. Moreover, Ines explained in detail that aspects of the context, both general and specific, impacted her PADs as a teacher educator. Due to the chaotic context in which she taught Ines was forced

to make/choose PADs that she may not have otherwise used. One such example of this occurred during a teachers' strike. Ines decided to teach in spite of the strike and, as she did not want to outwardly oppose the strike, notified her students the night before via Facebook that class would take place as usual (SRI2). She provided additional examples of how the, what she perceived as being chaotic, context influenced her PADs, such as when she reported that 'sometimes the heating is not working' at the university (SRI7). During one classroom observation, Ines used humor to make jokes about the conditions of the context in what seemed to be an attempt to lighten the mood within the classroom. She elaborated:

> I'm quite accustomed, I was a student here too. I made that joke because they know where we are. They know the environment. They know the budget is low, but the level is good … I would love to have [chuckles] heating and better bathrooms, and I don't like the pigeons [in the building] distracting us teachers or students, but I think this is what we have to cope with. I don't like it … I'm used to it. I'm not comfortable at all … I don't like teaching in these conditions. I don't like it. I wouldn't work somewhere else, so if I have to accept this, I do … Maybe I am quite angry at these conditions. I understand that the budget is low … But I think that heating is serious (ibid.).

These external, contextual factors appeared to influence Ines and one of her PADs as she felt it was difficult for her to work and for her students to learn when the physical environment was inhospitable and distracting due to the cold and the presence of wild birds within the classroom. In order to address these factors, Ines was inclined to make jokes about what she considered to be undesirable conditions. Despite these factors, she was willing to accept these conditions due to what she perceived as the high standing of the university and course on which she taught.

The second main external factor that influenced Ines' PADs was the behavior of her students within the classroom. Ines described how in one class her students were talking quite a lot amongst themselves and that this had bothered her as she felt this was distracting for both herself and the other students and that these students were not focusing adequately. She believed that her students should act appropriate to their age and level of study and that they should not talk during class about issues that were unrelated to the module. In order to cope with this classroom management issue, Ines chose to consciously implement the PAD of moving across the room and standing next to the chatting students in an attempt to regain her control (SRI1). This was unusual from what had been observed previously and when asked why she acted in this manner Ines described how this instance differed from how Ines previously reacted to situations similar to this. She explained:

> There were opportunities in the past when I had to stop the class until students would shut-up. And I get really, really angry. And they are surprised at how angry I get. And I always tell them, 'This is not high school anymore. This is university. And you are grown-ups' (SRI1).

Previously, when her students engaged in talking about non-academic issues while in class, this impacted Ines emotionally and she felt herself become quite irritated and chose to stop the class and address the students who were speaking. While this was no longer Ines' preferred method of dealing with disruptive student behavior, she did fall back on this model during instances when she felt stressed due to time restrictions. On one occasion where time was an issue, several students were speaking to one another and Ines loudly stated 'Guys!' to get their attention (CO). She explained:

> I looked at those guys in the back and realized they were talking about something else. And I looked at them, but they didn't make eye-contact, because they kept talking about whatever they were talking about. They were disturbing the class. I was in a hurry. Maybe some other time I would have got closer to them - that they would notice me looking at them and I wouldn't have said anything. But some of their mates were having a hard time trying to explain what they were staying and the buzzing sound there was bothering me … I was in a hurry. I revealed my other self - Dr. Jekyll, Mr. Hyde (SRI4).

In this situation, Ines felt she reverted to her former pedagogical tactic of regaining control and thereby showed another side of herself within her classroom because she was experiencing time-related pressure. It appeared that Ines tried subtler ways to get the students to stop speaking but finally made the decision to address those students directly as she did not feel she had time to let them continue to disrupt her class. Therefore, time-related restrictions impacted on her PADs and use of classroom management techniques.

Ines also noted that the students' use of mobile phones during the class affected her PADs She explained that it annoyed her when mobile phones interrupted her class and said that 'whenever a cell-phone rings, because they [the students] forget to shut it off, I stop the class. And all the students laugh' (SRI1). This annoyance was, therefore, strong enough to influence Ines' PADs to stop teaching class and address the issue immediately and directly. In spite of feeling irritated by mobile phones usage in class, she adapted these trying situations into chances for student learning by engaging in the PAD of making jokes out of students forgetting to turn off their mobiles. One such example of this occurred when Ines initially thought one of her students was using her mobile to send a message or to chat with a friend. She explained:

> I have seen that in my students. And I have received messages from my daughter

> while she was in class. So, I know they do it - they chat when I don't look at them. I insist on this problem of using the phone in class. So, I found the opportunity to repeat that they shouldn't chat in class (SRI1).

It is important to note that despite her dislike of mobile usage in the classroom, Ines accepted and allowed her students to use them if they were 'looking up something on the phone' as she felt it allowed them to 'elaborate on … and provide an example' of what they were discussing in class (ibid.). It seems that Ines thought that students should only use their mobiles to look up pertinent information while in class. Ines also explained that teacher educators are guilty of this behavior as well. She stated:

> I have seen teachers who have their cell phones on their desk. And they look at the messages when they are teaching. I don't … I told them to put their cell phones in vibrate mode. That's what I do, I try to remember that in the class. If it accidentally rings I say, 'My mistake my mistake'. And they laugh. I don't want my cell phone there … If I am expected of an important call, I tell the students 'the cell phone is here, I expect a call. I am sorry if I have to take the call', and I take the phone out' (ibid.).

She also appeared to accept that sometimes mistakes do happen, either on her or the students' part, and, therefore, used these moments to remind her students of her beliefs concerning mobile usage.

The third main external factor that seemed to impact Ines' PADs was that of time constraints. Ines generally felt stretched for time, both inside and outside of class. She explained, 'I have too many eggs in the same basket…Research, and teaching, and post-graduate studies' (FUI). Ines further described how time pressures influenced her outside the classroom:

> Some days I have time, some days I don't have time. I think I don't make the most of the time I have. I get distracted, I am a procrastinator. So, if I read a good novel, I read the novel. If I watch a good TV series, I watch a couple of episodes. I come home and sometimes I take a nap because I am tired. I mean, I'm 53 years old. I feel I am a young person, but my body is a 53-year-old … And I don't manage my time very well. Yes, most days the time of the day when I can be more focused and more creative is between 5 and 8 at night. So, I am working, and I am enthusiastic about what I am doing, and my son and daughter tell me, 'Mom, are you going to cook anything? Are we going to have dinner?' (ibid.).

Ines was aware of time and of what she perceived as her tendency to mismanage it. Time-related pressure appeared to affect Ines, but she seemed to chastise herself for procrastinating and for outwardly never having enough time.

In addition to experiencing time-related pressures outside of class, Ines also described instances where time played a role while she was teaching in class. She indicated that she felt

rushed due to time and was ‘conscious of time’ since she considered herself to be ‘genuinely ambitious’ and wanted to teach more than was actually possible in the allotted timeframe (FUI). During one classroom observation, Ines repeatedly reminded her students of the time constraints surrounding this module. When asked why she mentioned time so frequently during this class, Ines explained that she had not intended to discuss it as much as she did, but that she was ‘so stressed about time’ that she was not aware she brought it up (SRI4). The primary reason for the time pressure that Ines experienced in this instance was because she would be away on vacation for the next three weeks and would therefore miss the following three classes (ibid.). Ines explained:

> I was concerned about time or where we would get to because of the absence … And I did not tell them [the students] that I will be absent because I didn't want them to miss the classes. Because they think that if the teacher is not there … they can skip class … So, I know I am wasting some classes. I should have taught this novel in more classes. I don't have enough time to teach the whole novel as I would have liked to teach it … That's why I was in a hurry. I didn't realize that I mentioned, or that I talked about time, so many times. But obviously I had my mind on that (ibid.).

She further mentioned that she felt ‘guilty leaving’ her work behind even though she had arranged for her teaching assistants to instruct while she was away (ibid.). Ines was concerned about her extended absence and the effect it had on her teaching time during the term. She expressed that she would have liked to have had more time to go through the novel with her students in more depth, but she consciously chose to teach in a manner that ‘concentrated more on the topic’ in order to compensate for missing several classes (ibid.). One way in which Ines did this was by quickly explaining specific details from the novel rather than allowing for more time to work through these details with her students, which can be seen as potentially contradictory from Ines’ belief that her students should take an active part in their own learning. Furthermore, she acknowledged that she thought her students had noticed that she had ‘behaved differently’ during this class to how she normally acted while teaching (ibid.).

Once back from vacation, Ines continued to experience time-related pressures. Ines struggled to provide her students with feedback from their exams during the first class that was observed after her return. She described that she felt her English was a bit ‘rusty’, or that she seemed to feel a somewhat heightened sense of self-consciousness in regard to her English speaking ability, and that she ‘was in a hurry’ as she ‘wanted to make up for the time’ she had been away (SRI5). She explained:

> I arrived here on Friday, and on Friday afternoon I got the exams. So, I corrected the

> exams on Monday, Tuesday, and partly on Wednesday. I had not finished with all the exams, so I corrected from 8AM to 10AM when I had to get to university … I intended that very morning to copy some exams so as to make a list of mistakes. But I didn't have time to do that … I think that the students needed to know what they had done wrong, but I could not give them examples in the air. They needed something more concrete. And I tried to resort to my memory, but sometimes I couldn't (SRI5).

Ines was unable to provide her students with the feedback she deemed necessary and she attributed feeling 'stuck' in this case due to the lack of time she had to prepare for providing this feedback (ibid.). She reported that, in this instance, she did not feel confident, felt as if she had been 'unprepared', and believed that she 'should have done something different' as she was unable to provide her students with concrete feedback in class (ibid.).

Ines employed several different PADs to cope with time-related pressure. First, she was willing to make changes to and to restructure the material that was taught on this module. Towards the end of the term, she felt particularly pressured due to the lack of time to adequately cover the remaining material and, therefore, in order to accommodate for this Ines had to decide 'whether to finish the novel or to teach the short story' that she had also intended on discussing. She explained:

> The analysis of the short story, though it's really, really short, takes time … I'd rather not teach the story than omit the comments. So, I decided to finish with the novel … and not teach this short story and leave it for some other time. Maybe we will have to drop it completely (SRI7).

When asked why she had made the choice to remove the final short story from the module's syllabus, Ines stated:

> I decided to teach the novel because I wanted to round it up. I didn't want to tell them, 'Okay, you finish the novel on your own.' I wanted to finish something rather than start with something new (ibid.).

By removing material from the syllabus, Ines showed that she valued completing what had previously been started in a thorough manner rather than introducing and rushing through new material. She also did not want her students to misunderstand the meaning of the novel, which, despite her preference for her students taking a proactive role in their learning process, she thought might have occurred if she had instructed them to finish the analysis by themselves. This tension is notable as time-related pressures seemed to have the power to make Ines choose different PADs than she normally would have utilized. Moreover, Ines made sure to inform her students of the changes to the syllabus. During one class she spent approximately 25 minutes clarifying the new, revised schedule with them. She did this to

help calm and reassure the students as the final exam period was approaching (SRI7). She explained to her students that because of 'the holidays, the storm, and all these problems' the contact time in class had been reduced and, therefore, the schedule had to be altered (ibid.). In spite of her intentions behind making revisions to what was taught, Ines did not feel completely positive about removing the short story from the syllabus. Additionally, at this time, more national holidays were suddenly added to the Argentinian calendar which meant that Ines would miss further classes with her students. She stated:

> It's going to be a mess … I don't like it. I mean I feel uncomfortable because I want to test the students … I want to finish my schedule. They were supposed to study two short stories and a novel for the last exam. Now, they're going to have only one story and a novel … I don't like not to finish things, but I gave this point a lot of thought … I knew I wouldn't be able to do both things well…So, I thought I'd rather make a choice … I thought that I should be more assertive, more confident, to say, 'Well, okay. Let's leave this aside. Let's finish with this' (ibid.).

Despite her reservations, Ines valued quality over quantity and was, therefore, willing to forego attempting to teach everything she had initially planned. This illustrated her priorities and adaptability as a teacher educator.

5.4 Julieta

5.4.1 Background

Julieta was an Argentinian female who turned 45 years old during the data collection process. She spoke Spanish as her mother tongue and spoke English fluently. Julieta began learning English when she was 12 years old. She explained:

> Before high school I had never been in contact with English. In primary school we didn't use to have English as a part of the curriculum. As from 1995 onwards that changed in Argentina and students start having English from fourth grade onwards, two hours a week. But my first contact with English was when I started high school and I really loved the classes (BI).

Due to this exposure and her interest in the English language, Julieta expressed her desire 'to study more thoroughly' to her father and, therefore, began lessons with a private teacher (ibid.). She described that she 'fell in love with the language' and continued to study English privately for five years (ibid.). When she began learning English as an adolescent, Julieta was primarily exposed to 'grammar focused' language teaching that required memorization and utilized fill-in-the-blanks exercises and stated that 'the communicative approach wasn't even heard of in Argentina' at that time (ibid.). Once at university, however, 'the communicative approach was widespread' and her university teacher educators chose to incorporate aspects

of this approach, such as 'discourse, projection [speaking openly] that was independent of accuracy', into their classes (BI). When asked if she thought that she had experienced problems speaking English after growing up in a grammar-translation-based environment, Julieta replied:

> I thought I knew a lot of English and when I started university I said, 'Oh my God, what have I done?'. But I think I could catch up. I never had to retake the course or take a final exam twice. So, that meant I could cope with the requirements of the moment. And at the same time, I could adapt to the switch from a more grammar-based way to more communicative one. And I really liked the challenge. I remember when I had to speak it was very hard (ibid.).

This excerpt shows that despite having initially studied English under the grammar-translation tradition, Julieta was able to draw on her inner strengths and her love of challenges and, therefore, overcome the initial shock she experienced when moving into an environment that utilized the communicative tradition. For Julieta, studying English on the teacher education program 'was like a whole new discovery' (ibid.). This was because she knew that she enjoyed studying the English language and that she 'wanted to be better at English', but she did not know if she would enjoy teaching. Julieta explained that she did not view herself as a future teacher when she was undertaking her teacher education; she regarded herself as a student. However, once she started to actually teach this perception of herself and of her roles and responsibilities as a teacher changed ('I didn't project myself as a teacher in the future. But when I started with the teaching courses … I discovered a whole new world and I understood the impact your practices have on those learners', ibid.). During her time on the university teacher training program, Julieta 'loved reading and listening to English' and eventually also grew to enjoy speaking in English as, as identified above, she 'hadn't done much speaking before' (ibid.). Julieta described her learning preferences while on the course:

> The language courses were my favorite. I liked phonetics and phonology a lot. I didn't like grammar much, but I acknowledge the fact that it was necessary and useful … Then I fell in love with the methodological courses. That's why I became interested in teaching in general (ibid.).

Through modules that focused on topics such as phonology and methodology, Julieta was able to discover what motivated her love of teaching and, after finishing the teacher education program at university, she went on to complete a post-graduate course that specialized in educating at the higher education level (ibid.). It was during this period of time, when she 'started reflecting upon learning and teaching', that Julieta realized she would have been willing to 'become a teacher in any discipline' since she was 'fascinated by witnessing the

way in which people learn and move on and progress' (BI). Ultimately, she decided to become a teacher of the English language. Julieta continued with her education and at the time of data collection, she was writing her thesis for a doctoral degree at an Argentinian state university which concentrated on 'student persistence' throughout the teaching education program (ibid.).

Julieta had been teaching EFL for approximately 24 years in various contexts and to students of various levels. She recounted:

> I started teaching before I graduated … I worked in primary schools, I worked in high schools, I worked in private institutes with adolescents and adults. And then, once I graduated and once I could choose the jobs, I focused a little bit on adults. And I ended up working with ESP [English for Specific Purposes] (ibid.).

Julieta also explained that she had been working as a teacher educator at a large Argentinian state university for approximately 19 years and that the majority of her students in this context tended to have either beginner or advanced levels of English. She was observed on one of the two first-year language learning modules that she taught on in this context. These modules were specified for students who needed to improve their overall level of English before beginning the main courses designated as part of the degree program. Julieta instructed one-fourth of this module with three other teacher educators and met with her students once a week for two hours. Her classes were primarily seminar-style, which included group and pair work, class discussions, feedback, and in-class assessments. Julieta explained that her portion of the module focused on writing skills, but that ultimately the other skills of reading, listening, and speaking were also encompassed into her classes. Additionally, she noted that feedback, organization, and flexibility all played a significant role in her style of teaching (ibid.).

Julieta described the typical structure of her classes as starting with feedback on what occurred during the previous lessons or on the students' homework or the elicitation of knowledge from the students regarding a specific learning point followed by 'some exchange among the students', either 'in pairs, in groups, individual[ly]' (ibid.). She found this step to be important as she believed 'interaction is key in language learning' and she therefore purposefully included techniques (e.g. pair work, group work) to foster active interaction and participation from her students (ibid.). Julieta noted, however, that while she tried to follow a structure for her classes, it was ultimately dependent 'on the nature of the class' and how it organically progresses (ibid.). One step that Julieta was observed as always undertaking was

to write the homework on the board at the beginning of each class. She did this because she thought it kept her and the students organized and she felt it gave her 'a sense of security' while in class (i.e. keeping herself organized and on track with what she planned for the lesson) (BI). Additionally, Julieta would write 'Welcome' and an inspirational quote 'about succeeding, about learning, about having goals' on the board at the beginning of the class. She included both of these things due to her fundamental belief that the students are essential in the teaching process ('with no students, there is no class. There is no teaching. Everything is meaningless without these people. So, they should be welcomed … Without the students there is no institution. There is no teacher. Without the student there is nothing', ibid.). This belief also affected how Julieta perceived her role as a teacher educator and how she viewed herself in this role. The excerpt above helps to partially explain her motivation for being a teacher educator. Julieta described that she enjoyed the act of teaching because she liked 'the contact with other human beings' and found this interaction 'magical' as she believed each class was unique and she enjoyed the uniqueness of each class since she liked to be challenged (ibid.). While Julieta found working with her students in class to be her favorite aspect of teaching, she stated that 'coping with the [university] system' was the most difficult part of being a teacher educator (ibid.). Examples of issues that Julieta felt were difficult to cope with included working 'with other teachers who have completely different paradigms about teaching and learning' and contextual issues such as not having 'the right room to work on listening skills' with the students or having her class be frequently interrupted by outside actors (ibid.). Despite finding such aspects problematic, Julieta stated that she had 'learned to cope' with these types of difficulties and believed that working through these issues enriched her as a teacher educator (ibid.).

Julieta believed that all teachers and teacher educators, including herself, had been influenced by their own experiences while learning and that this past shaped who they are as educators currently. She stated:

> I cannot imagine a teacher who has not been influenced by his or her own history as a learner. It is only natural. It's like parenting. Somethings you didn't like, so you are just the opposite. But that has an impact, positive or negative. You imitate, or you change completely. But it's part of how we form our paradigms (ibid.).

One aspect that seemed to have resonated with Julieta in particular was the fact that her own teachers had been 'open' and that 'they were available' to their students (ibid.). She explained:

> We were, this is not a minor detail, we were coming out of the military coup we had

> had. I started high school in 1983 when we recovered democracy with President Alfonsín. And there was a whole new vision of how we Argentinians should behave socially speaking. And of course, education was part of this new change of paradigms. Our school head was a history teacher … And he wanted free citizens. And he wanted teachers who were available for us. So, we carried out a lot of activities, maybe extra-curricular activities, if we had to paint the school, everybody went to pain the school on weekends. Teachers and students, parents. So, it was a learning community and this relationship helped create this bond that probably was special (BI).

This proved to be formative for Julieta and greatly influenced her as a teacher educator; due to this close, communal experience with her educators, Julieta wanted to provide a similar experience for her students. She explained that she would like to be available to her students at all times for any questions or concerns they had as she believed it was a responsibility of teacher educator, but she knew this was 'an excess' (ibid.). She believed it was important to be accessible to her students in many ways, such as via email, through face-to-face conversations, by providing 'extra materials' and feedback, or offering guidance, and let her students know of her availability (ibid.). Another way in which Julieta's past relationships with her educators influenced her as a teacher educator manifested in the teaching techniques and approaches which she utilized during lessons that she thought were compatible with what her students needed. For example, she explained described how she was willing to become more 'flexible', less 'dogmatic', and to deviate from what was prescribed by specific approaches in order to address her students' needs, contrary to what her own school teachers appeared to have done when Julieta was a student, despite the communal nature in which her education occurred post-1983 (ibid.).

5.4.2 Rationales – Internal factors

Several internal factors appeared to influence Julieta's rationales behind her PADs. The first main factor was Julieta's belief in the value of respect, both teacher educators to students and students to teacher educators. Julieta was very cognizant of who her students were as people and as a group as she took great interest in them and attempted to get to know them well. She believed that the current generation of students were 'more vulnerable' and 'less independent' than when she had been a student and attributed this belief to 'a big social change' that had taken place over the last quarter century (ibid.). In order to address this shift, Julieta thought it was essential for teacher educators to listen to their students and to be 'available' to them 'from a more humane or humanistic perspective' as she believed students were 'human being[s] with emotions and needs' and they would therefore appreciate and be

receptive to teacher educators acting in this manner (BI).

One such way in which Julieta believed she was able to show respect for her students was by taking into account their beliefs (ibid.). She explained that with the experience she had gained over her career as a teacher educator, she 'realized that it is very important to work on students' beliefs', particularly those focusing on 'self-esteem' and 'awareness' (ibid.). For Julieta, the choice to promote self-awareness within her students was a way to show respect as she believed that the students had grown up in a culture that promoted criticism and only focused on their shortcomings (ibid.). She thought that students in this context did not typically receive much praise when they were 'successful learners', but rather only received a mark without constructive criticism or feedback (ibid.). She believed that praise by a teacher educator, whether it be for a specific piece of work or for the effort that a student made, had the ability to 'mark' a student and impact them for the rest of their lives as a learner (SRI2). Thus, Julieta felt that it was necessary for teacher educators within this context to make the conscious decision to prioritize offering more praise to their students as a sign of respect by way of acknowledging the efforts of the students and the imperative learning processes they had been through, regardless of their mark (ibid.).

Additionally, Julieta was able to show her students that she respected them as human beings through her desire to create a comfortable, productive learning environment for them. She thought that it was essential for her as a teacher educator 'to appeal to the emotional side of … learning' within her students since she believed that without emotion 'there is no connection' and without a connection 'there is no learning' (SRI1). One way that she did attempted to appeal to her students' emotional side was to 'try to bond' with them (ibid.). In order to form this bond, Julieta consciously focused on understanding and engaging with what she termed 'the emotional affective aspect' of the student experience (e.g. 'thinking about what comes for the future, thinking about persistence, thinking about how long it takes to graduate') in the context of her first-year students at a large state university (ibid.). She attempted to create this bond by establishing a sense of rapport with her students through the creation of an environment in which the students felt comfortable and appreciated and, in doing this, Julieta believed that the role of being a teacher educator became 'a lot easier' since a connection had already been established (SRI3). For example, Julieta made great attempts learn and remember the names of her students as a way of building rapport. She did this because she thought 'it is important to show them [her students] that it is not just one

more student' and that she remembered them as individuals and not just part of a larger collective group (SRI3). Julieta wanted her students to have a different experience with her in comparison to the experiences they had with some of their other teacher educators and, therefore, endeavored to show her students that she valued them as individuals and that she did not just be think of each students as being a number (ibid.). Thus, she believed that engaging in this type of personalization was 'a sign of respect' towards the students and conveyed that she 'care[d]' about them as individuals (ibid.). Through the use of personalization and the building of rapport, Julieta tried to create a conducive environment in order to reach her students and felt that demonstrating that she was '100% available to have this magical moment of learning' was a way she could show her respect for her students (ibid.). She further strove to incorporate respect, through the use of praise and by emphasizing her students' comfort, into her teaching.

It was also important to Julieta that she felt as if her students respected her as a teacher educator. She explained that the respect she received from her students gave 'sense to everything' she did within her role as a teacher educator (ibid.). She also believed that 'the worst thing that can happen to a teacher is to lose the respect of his or her students' as this would erode the 'teacher-student relationship' and, therefore, it would be impossible for learning to occur (ibid.). Thus, Julieta decided to make explicit to her students that she was not striving for them to 'like' her but rather to understand 'that everything we [teacher educators] do has a purpose, is for a reason, and that every choice behind the objectives and behind the regulations of the institution, everything is done thinking that they [the students] are the most important part of the class', and that the role of a teacher educator would not exist without the presence of the students (ibid.). She wanted her students to know that she valued their respect of her as a teacher educator and that she also respected them for being her students and that everything she did as a teacher educator 'revolved around their central existence' to the process of learning (ibid.). Thus, the concept of respect played an important role on her teaching and PADs.

An additional internal factor that influenced Julieta's PADs was her value on the importance of the mental process of learning. Julieta strove to make her students think and, therefore, often relied on the use of elicitation techniques with her students rather than simply offering them the correct answer (SRI4). During a classroom observation, she made the comment, 'Don't stare at me. I won't give you the answer' (CO). When asked to explain why she had

said this, Julieta revealed that she, as a teacher educator, was comfortable with silence in class and did not feel the need to fill the emptiness (SRI4). This had not always been the case, however, and earlier in her career Julieta had perceived silence as a waste of time and felt that it was necessary 'to fill in the silence with something' (ibid.). This perception had shifted with time to understanding that her students may need more time to process information and accepting moments of silence within class as an opportunity to give her 'students time to reason, to think about options' and the chance to 'retrieve' previously learned knowledge (ibid.). Moreover, Julieta was comfortable in moments of silence due to a gap in her own knowledge. She explained that she did not embarrassed if she did not know the answer to a student's question at this juncture in her career ('If I don't know the answer … I just say, 'I just don't know. I have to check. Let's ask. Does anybody know?'. I even hand in the responsibility to them', ibid.). This level of comfort that Julieta had was due to her belief that it was acceptable for teacher educators to constantly learn new knowledge and that the advent of new technology (e.g. mobile phones), the Internet, and globalization allowed for teacher educators and students to 'share the responsibility' in being 'the source of…information' within the classroom (ibid.). Julieta expressed that she was at ease with what she perceived as a shift in what was expected knowledge for a teacher educator to have and, therefore, did not have an issue uttering statements like, 'I don't know,' 'I have to check', 'Let's look it up together', 'I will look it up for next week', and 'I have no idea' when she did not know the answer to a student's question (SRI4, CO). Julieta also applied this value to the use of Spanish translation within her class. She viewed translation as 'a short cut' that was useful in certain situations (e.g. answering a student's question during a test) but tended to avoid using it while teaching in class (SRI4). Julieta engaged in this practice because she believed it was 'more valuable to learn that we [the teacher educator and the students] can think together than to reply to show off that you know the word' (ibid.). These examples show how the PADs that Julieta employed were consistently informed by the way she positioned the students and the teacher educator in the teaching-learning process. She therefore prioritized helping her students 'improve their mental processes in learning' instead of what she perceived as merely 'fill[ing] them with content' for the sake of filling a class period (ibid.).

Another internal factor that impacted Julieta's rationales for her PADs was the role of flexibility and adaptability. Julieta's views on being flexible and adaptable had changed with the more experience she gained as a teacher educator. She explained:

When I started teaching, I was structured as a teacher of English. Everything had to be

> as planned. And in the beginning, deep down I was burning - I was like, 'Oh, what am I going to do? Did the activity depend on this other one?'. But little by little I gained flexibility (BI).

Being flexible and adaptable as a teacher educator while in class proved to be important to Julieta. During a classroom observation, it was noted that she was faced with a potentially challenging situation as her students had not completed their homework and, therefore, had not prepared for this class period. Instead of panicking or chastising her students, she reacted with flexibility and 'change[d] plans immediately' (SRI5). Julieta engaged in this PAD as she believed 'this is what teaching is all about – you have to be flexible, you have to adapt' (CO). She chose on this occasion to ask the students how they thought the group should proceed during this class period as Julieta could not continue with her original lesson plan. She believed that it was necessary for her students to understand their role in the shared responsibility of learning and thus made the decision to co-create a new plan for this class period with her students ('OK, we are together, let's see what we think - whether we can come up with ideas that are constructive for the rest', SRI5). After engaging in the PAD of asking for her students' opinions as to what to do during this class period, Julieta was able to take their suggestions and to carry on with the new, improvised lesson.

A further main internal factor that impacted Julieta's PADs was her desire to assist her students 'acculturate' to the university environment (SRI3). For Julieta, it was imperative to help her students 'adapt more quickly' to university life and to what was expected of them (SRI2). She engaged in this practice by 'emphasiz[ing] what was important, what was extra' in the hope that it would make her students be more 'successful' while at university (ibid.). Despite her belief that helping the students acculturate to university life was 'crucial', Julieta explained that not all of her colleagues agreed with her methods and viewpoint (ibid.). She stated:

> Some colleagues sometimes complain and they say, 'You spoon feed the students. You don't have to tell them everything'. I think it is very selfish not to help them [the students] realize how things work. It is not that they are stupid. They will realize sooner or later. I prefer that it is sooner than later (ibid).

Julieta believed that it was her responsibility to be explicit and to preemptively explain life in this context to her students as soon as they entered university as this was a completely new environment for them. She knew that this behavior was perceived as 'maternalistic' by some of her colleagues, but she viewed it as part of her empathetic style as a teacher educator and as 'an opportunity' to provide essential advice on how to succeed on the program and at the

university level (SRI3). When asked if she believed she had 'spoon fed' her students by behaving in a maternal manner while assisting them in the acculturation process to university, Julieta stated that she did not agree with this perception (ibid.). Instead, she felt that her choice to act like this served as 'a sign of respect', which has already been discussed as having been a very important internal factor for motivating her PADs, towards the students because it allowed her, as a teacher educator, to show her students that she was 'aware' of what was expected of them as students on the program (ibid.). Julieta also thought that being maternal was a way to be 'clear' with the students and, therefore, could often be seen engaging in behavior towards her students in this manner (ibid.).

5.4.3 Rationales – External factors

A few external factors arose that influenced Julieta's rationales for her PADs. The first concerned accountability. During a classroom observation, Julieta asked her students for their opinions as to what they should cover during this module ('OK, do you think we should …?', CO). When asked why she did this, she explained: 'I try to ask the students whether they believe that we should keep some material, like activity, task, for future [name of module] students' (SRI2). Julieta did this in order to give her students some 'power to decide' and power over their own learning (ibid.). She did this in conjunction with materials evaluations done on a class level at the end of the module as she thought these means allowed her students to 'reflect on what they have just done' and the choices they made (ibid.). Julieta felt that giving her students the chance to reflect on what they had learned was very important as it helped to make them more accountable for their own learning. She stated:

> A teacher reflects upon his or her decisions all the time. That is part of your job. To choose, to reflect upon results, to think about objectives. So, in a way it is an invitation to ask them to start doing our job (ibid.).

By making the decision to provide her students opportunities to reflect internally, Julieta believed she was able to help her students to begin to understand the process of reflection that they will encounter once they are teachers. For Julieta, reflection was an integral aspect of being a teacher educator and she engaged with it regularly. For example, she explained that all the teacher educators involved on the module she was observed on would meet at the end of the term to review 'the written class evaluations' and would reflect upon these evaluations in order to 'make decisions for the following term' (ibid.). Through the PAD process of summative reflection, Julieta and her colleagues were able to 'introduce changes' to the curriculum taught on the module in order to better serve their students' needs (ibid.).

Another aspect of accountability that influenced Julieta's rationales for her PADs was her belief that the students should be prepared for class. On one occasion, when her students failed to prepare for class, Julieta simply asked her students how they would like to proceed with class as they were had not taken responsibility to be prepared. She explained:

> They are not my kids, they are adults, they are not kids. So, in a way, very nicely, very gently, 'OK, so what can we do? You should have done this so tell me what to do. It is not my responsibility when you didn't do your homework' … In a way I passed the ball to them (SRI1).

Julieta thought that the students should be responsible for coming to class prepared but when they did not, she did not chastise them but rather turned the onus back on the students to create a new plan for the class period. She opted not to 'give a speech about responsibility' as she did not believe it would be effective and instead decided to treat the students 'as equals' even though she described herself as having been surprised and 'really upset' by the lack of student preparation (ibid.). Julieta explained that she knew 'that the English teaching program' at the university was 'very demanding' for the students but insisted that the students should rise to the challenge as they had chosen to take part in the program (ibid.). She wanted her students to reflect on their decision to become teachers and to begin to become aware of the responsibilities they will face as teachers (ibid). When asked if she thought that reacting in this way made an impression on the students, Julieta stated that it may have 'raise[d] awareness' (ibid.). She believed that this instance of reminding the students of their responsibility to be prepared had impacted her students and, therefore, she seemed to be satisfied with the PAD she had undertaken.

The second main factor that influenced Julieta's rationales for her PADs was regarding the context in which she taught. Classroom interruptions by outside parties were one such aspect of the context that affected Julieta. She felt that she was 'interrupted in every single class' and explained that this was very common as people were always 'looking for a room' or wanting to 'take a chair' from the room in which she taught (SRI5). Julieta also stated that the university had fire drills and had previously experienced anonymous bomb threats, so it was occasionally necessary for everyone to leave the building (ibid.). Julieta elaborated on the nature of the interruptions and stated that many times she was interrupted by students campaigning for student government or by people collecting donations for various social causes (ibid.). The presence of these interruptions was disruptive to Julieta, but she stated that she thought it was 'part of the picture' within this context and was able to 'get used to it' (ibid.). One way in which she coped with these interruptions was to adapt her PADs. Julieta

was able to lessen the disruptive impact that these interruptions had on her classroom environment by immediately approaching the people wishing to come into her class and telling them 'to come back 15 minutes before the class finishes' (SRI5). By having the confidence to assert her dominance as a teacher educator, Julieta was able to minimize the time associated with these interruptions and was therefore able to continue teaching her class.

Another aspect of the context that influenced Julieta's PADs was what she perceived as a lack of time. Julieta described that the time associated with each module had changed since she was a student. Most notable was that the modules used to be taught annually instead of over one 16-week term (SRI2). In 1999, the university adopted a new timetable and Julieta felt that this new system no longer allowed for students to adequately 'learn … skills for a particular course' over an extended period of time (ibid.). She explained:

> What used to be taught in four hours a week for a year, is now taught in eight hours a week for a term. From the mathematic perspective it is the same amount of hours but from a language learning perspective it is absolutely different (ibid.).

When the timetable was updated, Julieta struggled and did not know how to handle the change. She recalled that at that time she had spoken with the course director and expressed her concerns ('What are we going to do? Please help me', SRI3). Over time and with more experience, Julieta began to learn more about the influence that time had on the learning and teaching process. She learned that she needed 'to be very respectful of individual timing' with her students (i.e. give each student the appropriate amount of time to process and understand the information individually) (SRI1). For example, Julieta explained that she thought she was 'a slow learner' and, therefore, made this revelation and her acceptance of being a slow learner clear to her students so they would not feel ashamed of taking what was perceived as more time to process new information (ibid.). She believed that her experience in learning impacted her understanding of and the PADs towards the students 'who need[ed] extra time, who need[ed] one more task, who need[ed] more feedback' (ibid.). Ultimately, Julieta thought that she had been able to learn 'to cope with that change and that tight schedule', but instances related to time did occasionally impact her PADs as a teacher educator (SRI3).

5.5 Cross-case Analysis

5.5.1 Introduction

This section will compare the themes related to the internal and external factors underlying

the three teacher educators' main rationales for their PADs that emerged across the case studies previously reported in Sections 5.2, 5.3, and 5.4. In order to complete this section, it was first necessary to group similar internal and external factors together that influenced the participants' PADs in this study. Upon preliminary analysis, a large number of themes emerged from the data. With closer scrutiny, however, it became apparent that several of the thematic factors that affected the participants' PADs were similar to other categorizations and thus were condensed into seven larger groupings. These seven groupings were then simplified once more into three larger, overarching categories that will serve as the foundation for this cross-case analysis: *supporting student learning*, *addressing teaching context*, and *modifying classroom behavior*. For example, the themes of *time*, *environment*, and *classroom management* share similarities and were therefore combined under the broader theme *teaching context*. A visualization of the three broad thematic categorizations (and the seven smaller themes which are encompassed within them) and their relationship to the three participants is shown in Table 13 on the following page.

5.5.2 Supporting student learning

The umbrella term *supporting student learning* encompasses the themes of *creating student-centric learning* and *establishing a positive classroom learning* environment. Both of these themes were explicitly evident in the case of each participant, albeit due to slightly different rationales. For Fran, utilizing PADs that promoted practical, student-centric learning proved to be significant to her as a teacher educator. She stressed that she did not want her students to only learn the material taught in her classes in order to pass tests, but rather to enrich themselves in preparation for their future professional careers as English language teachers. For example, she accomplished this by verbally reminding her students while in class that it was important for their growth as future teachers to participate and speak their minds in class by making comments such as 'This is not a test…Don't be afraid' and 'Tell me what you think…I'm not judging you' (CO). Fran also engaged in PADs which emphasized student-centric learning as she believed this aided in changing the learning dynamic from being teacher educator-centered, which allowed the students to be passive, to student-centered which allowed for increased opportunities for meaningful student interaction and participation with one another. A couple of ways in which she did this were by restructuring her classroom's seating arrangement and by verbally encouraging her students to be more interactive and participatory while in her classroom.

Table 13: Emergent themes across the three cases

	Fran	Ines	Julieta
Supporting student learning:			
Creating student-centric learning	✓	✓	✓
Establishing a positive classroom learning environment	✓	✓	✓
Addressing teaching context:			
Time	✓	✓	✓
Environment	✓	✓	✓
Classroom management	✓	✓	
Modifying classroom behavior:			
Tell students that teacher educators do not know everything	✓	✓	✓
Ask students for help	✓	✓	✓

Establishing a positive, comfortable, and supportive atmosphere for their students to learn in was also essential to all three participants in this study, but again for slightly different reasons. In Fran's case, a positive classroom learning environment was believed to help her students feel safe in order to collaborate. She established this type of atmosphere by utilizing PADs such as offering her students natural praise, reassuring and encouraging her students in class, and using humor.

Ines also wanted her classroom to be positive and supportive as well as student-centric in nature. As with Fran's case, Ines aspired for this type of environment as she believed it encouraged her students to participate in class, which she also believed helped to facilitate their learning. Moreover, Ines wanted to be involved in her students' learning and did so by bringing personal examples from her own life into class and by making an effort to learn about each student and his/her background. She did so because she felt it helped to create a closer relationship between her and her students and thus, to use this information to create student-centric lessons pertinent to her students. Additionally, Ines engaged in the PAD of providing her students with encouraging corrections and feedback in order to create a positive, supportive learning environment. It was important to Ines to treat her students compassionately when providing corrections and feedback so they would not feel embarrassed and would thus want to continue participating in class.

A positive, supportive, student-centric classroom atmosphere also featured in Julieta's case. Instead of focusing on the classroom atmosphere's ability to promote more student participation as Fran and Ines had[22], Julieta thought that a positive learning environment showed respect for her students. She expressed that learning occurred through respect and therefore strove to create a positive, student-centric atmosphere that humanely appreciated her students as individuals and their beliefs. Julieta also indicated that she felt she was able to empower her students through praise and help them acculturate to university in such a respectful environment. Moreover, Julieta attempted to bond with her students as she felt this would show her students that she respected them as individuals, and would, in turn, help establish a positive classroom learning environment. She believed that more learning would occur once this connection had been established. Therefore, Julieta engaged in student-centric PADs like personalization (e.g. learning her students' names) so that her students felt appreciated and respected as individuals.

5.5.3 Addressing contextual issues

The overarching theme of *addressing contextual issues* was apparent in the cases of each of the three participants: Fran, Ines, and Julieta. For Fran, the teaching context played a very active role in influencing her PADs. Firstly, Fran was constantly aware of time-related issues

[22] This connection may be implied, but no specific reference was made to it by Julieta during the data collection process.

and how they affected her PADs while in the classroom. She did not believe the shortened teaching term within this context was conducive to her students' learning and experienced further time issues due to environmental factors and frequent strikes. Therefore, due to a lack of time, Fran reluctantly prioritized and rearranged her course's material so that she could teach the most important, practical concepts thoroughly. Another way in which the teaching environment influenced Fran and her PADs was in relation to classroom management. She sometimes encountered issues corresponding to students arriving late and occasionally dealt with students who actively challenged her in class. In such instances, Fran believed that these students' attitudes did affect her as a teacher educator. Additionally, Fran's perceived lack of support from the university had an effect on her and her teaching, but she ultimately accepted the majority of these issues and tried not to let such factors influence her as a teacher educator because she thought that teaching in this context was important.

As with Fran, the overall teaching context affected Ines' PADs. Most notably, she experienced time constraints, both personally and professionally. Ines was always conscious of time and often felt rushed due to the short teaching term, strikes, and her several-weeks-long absence. In order to manage time-related pressures, she, like Fran, restructured her course so as to focus on quality, in-depth analysis rather than rushing to cover more material superficially. Ines' PADs were also affected by time in regard to how she gave her students corrections and feedback. She explained that she preferred delayed feedback but was more apt to give immediate corrections/feedback when she felt rushed. Moreover, Ines' PADs were influenced by the overall environment in which she worked and by some classroom management issues. Similar to Fran, Ines did not feel that the university's conditions or working atmosphere supported her as a teacher educator, but she wanted to continue working in what she perceived as a prestigious and important context. In order to contend with such environmental issues, Ines attempted to make the best of such contextual issues, particularly through the use of humor in class and by reiterating class rules when necessary.

Lastly, Julieta's PADs were influenced by the overall teaching context as well. She occasionally experienced pressure due to the compressed timeframe of the term, which is comparable to Fran's and Ines' cases, but she expressed that she felt she was able to manage this time-related stress. Julieta also encountered environmental issues in the form of fairly regular, but unplanned, interruptions to her classroom from outside sources (e.g. other students, student government representatives, fire drills). In order to address such issues, she

learned to confidently address such interruptions immediately which in turn helped her to adapt to them. Furthermore, through her use of adaptation and flexibility, Julieta was able to overcome classroom management issues such as her students not preparing for class, not doing their homework, and not actively participating.

5.5.4 Modifying classroom behavior

Fran described her journey of self-acceptance as a teacher educator in fine detail. Fran recognized that early in her career she felt that any gaps in her professional knowledge were detrimental to her as a teacher educator and this caused feelings of insecurity, uncertainty, and nervousness. With time and experience, she confidently accepted that teacher educators have finite knowledge[23], welcomed moments in class that highlighted this as they showed her students that teacher educators did not have infinite knowledge. Additionally, these moments when Fran felt she had gaps in her knowledge prompted her to engage in the PAD of asking her students for help. Fran explained that she was confident in doing this as it allowed her to model to her students that they, as future teachers, did not have to have infinite knowledge and that it was acceptable to make occasional mistakes.

As with Fran, Ines felt it was important to display to her students that she was allowed to sometimes have gaps in her professional knowledge. To do so, Ines also asked her students for help when she faced inconsistencies in her knowledge and disclosed to her students that even though she was a very experienced teacher educator, she still needed to prepare for class and research new information (i.e. PADs). Despite Ines' stated acceptance of and self-confidence regarding her belief in finite knowledge and being allowed to occasionally make errors, instances of Ines' self-consciousness in her abilities as a teacher educator did emerge during the data collection process (e.g. not wanting to reveal to her students when she made a perceived 'big' mistake, quickly moving past a perceived mistake). This incongruence is interesting, and it is important to note that Ines expressed that she was aware that she sometimes still felt self-conscious as an educator and explained that she had actively tried to conceal this from others.

Julieta, in comparison to Fran and Ines, appeared and reported to be extremely self-confident throughout the duration of the data collection process, both in relation to her acceptance of

[23] It is important to note that Fran stressed it was important to research and learn more about these gaps in knowledge once they became apparent to her.

not knowing everything and to her ability to be flexible and adaptable. At this stage in her career, Julieta reported being comfortable and confident with silence in her class as she believed it gave her students time to recall pieces of information from their existing knowledge. Likewise, Julieta was confident with quiet moments that arose due to gaps in her own knowledge as she felt students were also responsible for being sources of information, particularly due to the ready availability of the Internet on their mobile phones within the classroom. Additionally, Julieta, as with the cases of Fran and Ines, was comfortable requesting her students to help her in certain moments (e.g. asking the students what they should do next in class when no one had completed the assigned homework) but was driven by the rationale of asking the students to play an active role in their own learning. Julieta, therefore, welcomed what she perceived was a shift in expectations of what teacher educators should know.

5.5.5 Conclusion

This section compared the three main thematic groupings, *supporting student learning, addressing teaching context*, and *modifying classroom behavior* in regard to the three participants, Fran, Ines, and Julieta. As explained, each participant experienced these themes to varying degrees. This section attempted to describe the various intersections between each participant and each subtheme and how these intersections influenced the participants' PADs. The following chapter, Chapter 6, will provide a detailed discussion of the themes examined in this chapter in relation to the existing literature.

5.6 Summary

In this chapter I have described and cross-analyzed the findings which emerged from the three individual case studies of which the present study is comprised. The following themes were made evident through the analysis of each case's findings and by cross analyzing the findings and are discussed in great detail in relation to the existing literature during the subsequent discussion chapter (Chapter Six):

a) Each of the three participants who took part in this study were found to actively engage in modifying their own behavior, and thereby their PADs, as teacher educators throughout the years. Examples of ways in which all of the participants modified their behavior, albeit in different manners and for different reasons, both internally and externally, was by telling their students that it was not possible for teacher educators to have an infinite amount of knowledge or by asking their students for help while in

class.

b) The data show that the internal and external factors experienced by the participants encouraged them to utilize PADs that would allow them to establish a positive classroom learning environment for their students to learn in. They did this in multiple ways, such as asking their students to assist one another when they struggled, encouraging student participation through the use of positive, uplifting comments, and using humor.

c) All of the participants attempted to address contextual issues and to manage unanticipated teaching issues that arose while teaching. Although they did this in different manners due to the interaction between the internal and external factors they experienced, the participants could be seen to engage with PADs such as working with students they perceived as being difficult, choosing the most appropriate materials for the syllabus, and removing materials from lesson plans and the syllabus due to time constraint.

d) There is evidence from the data that the participants also endeavored to create learning that was student centric. They did this in various ways, and as a result of the influence of internal and external factors, by utilizing PADs such as rearranging the classroom seating, encouraging the students to participate, and eliciting information from the students.

Chapter Six: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter highlights the primary contributions offered by this study and critically analyzes them in relation to the existing literature in the field of language teacher cognition and pedagogy. The aims of the current research project were to investigate which PADs language teacher educators use (research question 1), which internal and external factors teacher educators refer to in their rationales for the PADs they take (research question 2), and how these factors influence teacher educators' PADs (research question 3). All this was examined within the context of an Argentinian EFL teacher education program which, up to the time that this study was conducted, had been noticeably under researched. As a researcher, I found it surprising that this context remained underexplored given Argentina's lengthy and prestigious history of English language teacher education (see Chapter Two) and, therefore, my interest in investigating this setting was enhanced as I wanted to conduct this study in order to lend a voice to the teacher educators within the Argentinian EFL teacher education system. The PADs that language teacher educators engaged in and the internal and external factors that impacted such PADs were delineated in Chapter Four: 32 PADs were identified in response to research question 1 and seven types of internal factors and 4 types of external factors (see Table 14 on the next page for the comprehensive list of PADs and internal / external factors) were identified in response to research question 2. Furthermore, these distinct PADs and the related factors are outlined in Table 14 on the following page which shows how these components have been organized into four separate themes: modifying classroom behavior, establishing a positive classroom learning environment addressing contextual issues, and creating student-centric lessons. These themes and the contributions of this study were identified as a result of a cross-case analysis.

Thus, the primary focus of this chapter is to address the third research question posited in Chapter One: what role do these internal and external factors play in influencing the teacher educators' PADs? The remainder of this chapter is divided into sections which discuss the existing literature in relation to each of the four abovementioned themes. Throughout these sections, the main contribution of this study lies in that this project provides insights into the complexity and richness of the interplay between the different PADs and internal and external factors, particularly how these factors operate in clusters in the context of a higher education language teacher education program in Argentina. While the participants' beliefs

Table 14: The distinct themes which emerged across the three cases

Theme	PADs (RQ1)	Internal Factors (RQ2)	External Factors (RQ2)
Modifying classroom behavior	• Use teaching notes • Tell students that teacher educators do not know everything • Show teaching notes to students • Ask students for help • Make changes to own behavior as a teacher educator	• Knowledge of self • Knowledge of students • Own beliefs • Own emotions • Own hopes • Own previous learning experiences	
Establish positive classroom learning environment	• Create a good relationship between teacher educator and students • Treat students as equals • Ask students to help each other and teacher educator • Rearrange classroom seating • Encourage students' participation through the use of comments • Use humor • Help students acculturate to university life • Personalization	• Knowledge of students • Knowledge of context • Own beliefs • Own emotions • Own previous learning experiences	• Context / teaching environment
Addressing contextual issues	• Work with students who teacher educator perceives as being difficult • Students' attitude and behavior • Choose most appropriate materials for syllabus • Remove materials from syllabus • Negotiate revised lesson plan with students • Monitor students • Reduce amount of materials used during course	• Knowledge of students • Knowledge of self • Own beliefs • Own emotions	• Time constraints • Students' attitude • Students' behavior
Creating student-centric learning	• Rearrange classroom seating • Encourage student participation • Give students adequate time to process information • Use visual aids • Group students into pairs and groups • Model role of teacher for students • Elicit information, points of view, and feedback from students • Set up class discussions • Create good teacher educator-student relationship • Ask students' opinions on teaching materials and course • Ask students to read aloud in class • Helps students develop critically through questions	• Knowledge of students • Knowledge of context • Own beliefs • Own emotions • Own previous learning experiences	• Context / teaching environment

impacted on their PADs, it is important to note the interconnectedness that underpins the teacher educators' actions and decisions. This complex relationship revealed that their beliefs influenced and reinforced each other as well as other internal factors such as their knowledge of self and of the students and the emotions the teacher educators experienced. This contribution is significant as it helps to increase the field's understanding of teacher educators' inner lives (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015) and the interplay of factors underlying teacher educators' actions and decisions within this specific context.

6.2 Modifying classroom behavior

The findings from the present investigation show that there was similarity amongst the three participants with reference to the PADs they took to prepare for teaching. Each of the participants expressed, to various extents, that they engaged in making changes to their own behaviors as teacher educators, whether that was by showing the students their preparation notes for teaching, telling them that it was not possible for teacher educators to know everything, or asking them for help and to aid one another. The PADs that are nested under the theme of *modifying classroom behavior* were shaped by several internal factors which manifested primarily as beliefs, but also as emotions and knowledge held by the teacher educators. A multitude of beliefs were deemed to underpin these PADs. They included:

1. Teacher educators should be prepared;
2. Teacher educators have a finite knowledge base;
3. It is acceptable for teacher educators to research information they do not know;
4. Teacher educators are allowed to make mistakes;
5. Teacher educators should acknowledge their own limitations as a teacher educator;
6. Teacher educators should engage in lifelong learning and personal growth;
7. Teacher educators should be self-aware;
8. It is acceptable for teacher educators to ask students to help one another and the teacher educators; and
9. Humility is shown when teacher educators ask students for help.

While there was evidence within the teacher educators' rationales that each of these beliefs impacted the participants' PADs (e.g. make changes to one's own behavior as a teacher educator, ask students for help, tell students that teacher educators have finite knowledge while preparing for teaching), it is important to note the interconnectedness that underpins this influence. This interrelatedness was revealed in that the abovementioned beliefs also

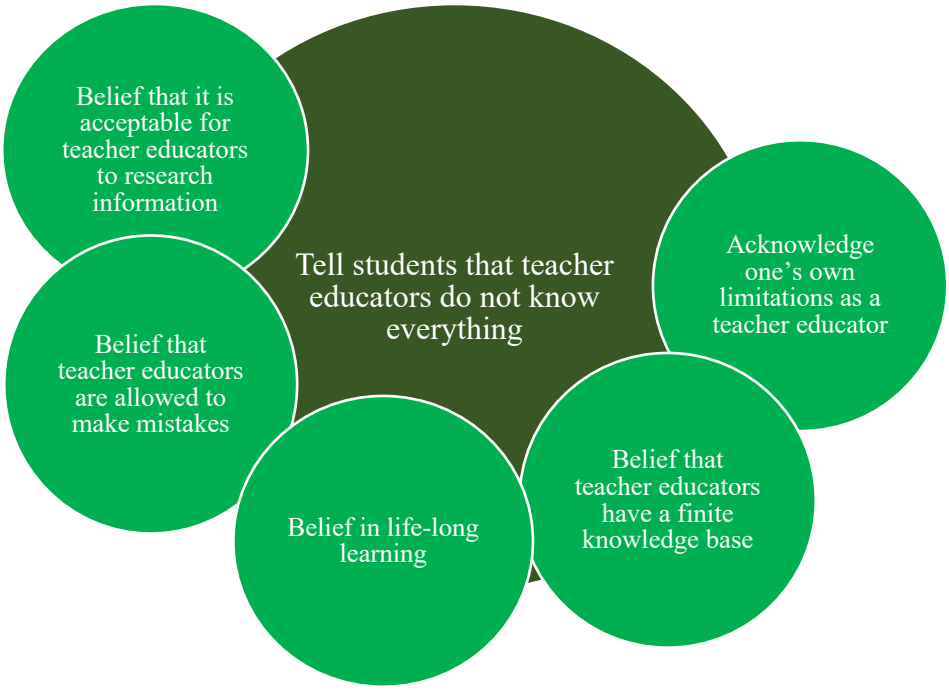
impacted on each other and other internal factors, namely the teacher educators' knowledge of self and of the students, and the emotions the teacher educators experienced with regard to how they prepared for teaching.

One way that this complex relationship became apparent was in relation to how the teacher educators in this study explained that they had made changes to their own teaching behavior over their years of experience. For example, Ines expressed that due to her own learning experience, to what she had learned over her extensive experience as a teacher educator, and to having her own university-age children, she believed that she had changed the manner in which she taught, most notably stating that she had become more understanding towards her students. This complex relationship was also apparent in the case of Fran: she had been greatly influenced by one of her educators at an early age and thus emulated her style; she had also learned the importance of positivity through her own personal growth journey. The participants, contrary to their held beliefs when they started their careers as teacher educators, indicated that their beliefs about being teacher educators had shifted. An example of this self-perceived personal growth could be seen through the participants actively informing their students of their beliefs that teacher educators had finite knowledge and that teacher educators were allowed to make mistakes. In the case of Fran, she stated that her beliefs regarding her perception of her content knowledge had changed over her career as a teacher educator. When she started teaching, Fran explained that she believed she needed to know everything and felt anxious when she did not. Over time, however, Fran accepted that she could not feasibly know every piece of information and even became comfortable sharing this with her students. Instead of feeling anxious, Fran would ask the other students for help and would research information that was missing from her existing knowledge. While the belief that it is acceptable for teacher educators to research information if they do not know the answer is clearly tied to the PAD of *informing their students that teacher educators do not know everything*, this belief can also be seen to be connected to other beliefs within this cluster (e.g. that teacher educators have a finite knowledge base; that teacher educators are allowed to make mistakes; the significance of acknowledging one's own limitations as a teacher educator; the importance of engaging in lifelong learning) and other internal factors contained under the broader theme of *modifying classroom behavior* (e.g. knowledge of self; belief that asking students for help shows the teacher educator's humility). This aligns with and adds to previous studies which also found that teachers' beliefs can shift with time and experience (e.g. Basturkmen, 2012; Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2004; Richardson, 1996). For

example, while Richardson's (1996) review of existing literature found that teachers' previous experiences greatly impacted upon their belief systems, the study by Cabaroglu and Roberts (2004) found that the beliefs held by student teachers were malleable and subject to change. Furthermore, the review conducted by Basturkmen (2012) showed that external factors, such as imposed constraints and the context, affected teachers being able to enact their avowed beliefs. Figure 5, on the following page, exemplifies the complex connection between the dominant internal factors of beliefs and existing knowledge and the teacher educators' PAD of *telling students that teacher educators do not know everything*. The circles in the figure below refer to the influence that the internal factors have: each of the light green circles directly impact upon that internal factor featured in the teacher educators' rationales for making changes to their own behavior as teacher educators. It is important to note that the size of all of the light green circles is the same as this study did not attempt to provide statistical significance attached to these green circles regarding the relationship between internal and external factors and the PADs of the teacher educators. Worth noting is that the internal factors seemed consistent with each other and the practice they shaped, which may be due to the participants' extensive experience. This finding adds to previous research that also established a link between the experience and PADs of teachers (e.g. Basturkmen, 2012; Buehl & Beck, 2015; Ertmer, Ottenbreit-Leftwich, Sadik, Sendurur, & Sendurur, 2012; Ogan-Bekiroglu & Akkoc, 2009; Sanchez & Borg, 2014).

As shown in Chapter Five, each of the participants acknowledged their own limitations as teacher educators and explained that they believed it was acceptable for them not to know everything. At first sight, this seems to contradict the existing literature on teachers' content knowledge which states that it is essential for educators to be proficient in the area in which they work (Loewenberg Ball, Hoover Thames, & Phelps, 2008). This is partially due to the commonly held behaviorist belief that teachers act as the fount of knowledge for their students (Johnson, 1994; Mak, 2011; Yuan & Hu, 2017). Upon further analysis, however, it became clear that Fran and Ines (with the exception of the instance in which Ines stated that she felt her English was 'rusty') believed that they were effective as teacher educators even when they perceived gaps in their content knowledge, specifically in regard to grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. For instance, Fran did not find her pronunciation or accent presented any issues and, instead, felt empowered by the fact that these aspects showed her identity as an Argentinian. Converse to the example of Fran, Ines implied, through her actions and comments, that she was not always confident or efficacious with her English

Figure 5: Internal factors influencing why the teacher educators make changes to their own behavior



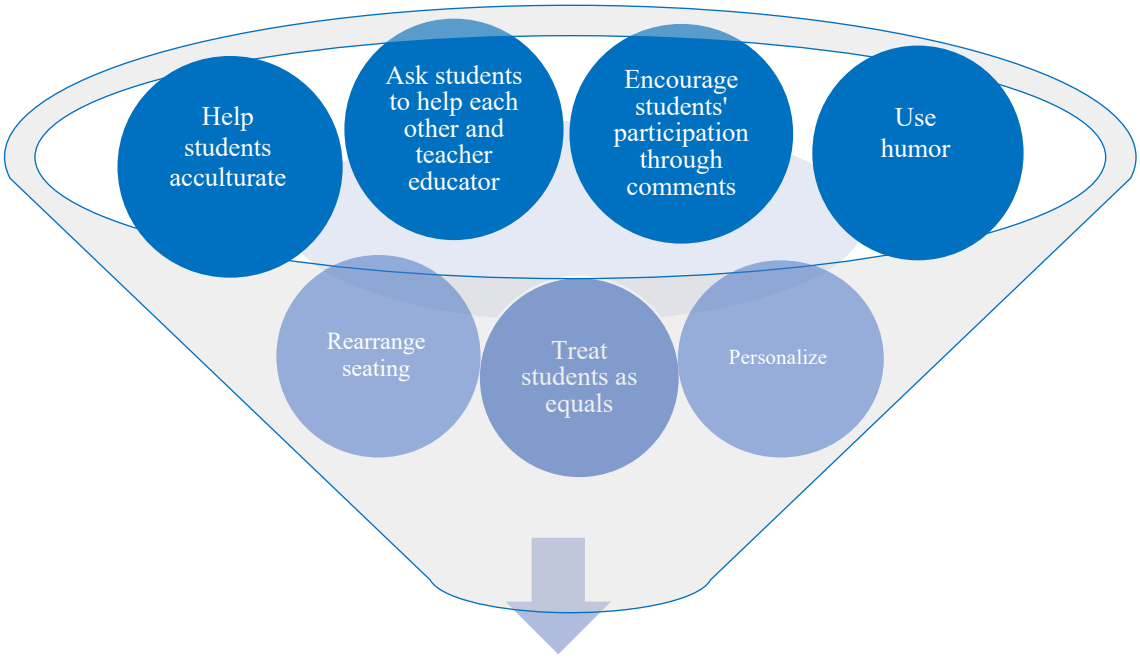
ability despite her claims that she was comfortable with her accent and the fact that English was her second language. This aligns with and further strengthens the findings which emerged in the studies by Chacon (2005) and Yilmaz (2011), which observed that teachers in the contexts of Venezuela and Turkey had a lower sense of self-efficacy when they perceived themselves to have lower levels of English.

6.3 Establishing a positive classroom learning environment

The second theme which emerged from the data is that of *establishing a positive classroom learning environment*. As shown in Table 14 (on page 149), there were eight PADs included in this theme. The empirical evidence suggests that these PADs were influenced by internal and external factors and were impacted by and interconnected to each other. Upon further analysis it became clear that, while a PAD itself, *creating a good relationship between the teacher educators and students* was significantly related to the other seven PADs contained within this theme and, therefore, can be seen as acting as an encompassing umbrella term comprised of more specific PADs (see Figure 6 on the next page for an illustration of how this PAD acted as an umbrella term). Most notably, over 30 beliefs were identified in the participants' rationales for these PADs and are depicted by the blue circles (e.g. praise encourages students: making comments towards the students encourages participation;

teacher educators should help students acculturate to university life; students will respond to humor in this context; students should not be solely reliant on teacher educators for learning). These beliefs manifested in clusters, example of which are provided below, and reinforced one another in relation to this theme, thereby revealing another instance of the complex relationship between teacher educators' previous learning experiences, their beliefs, how these beliefs influence one another and the teacher educators use of PADs, and how these beliefs are related to the external, contextual factors that the teacher educators experienced.

Figure 6: Creating a good relationship as an umbrella term



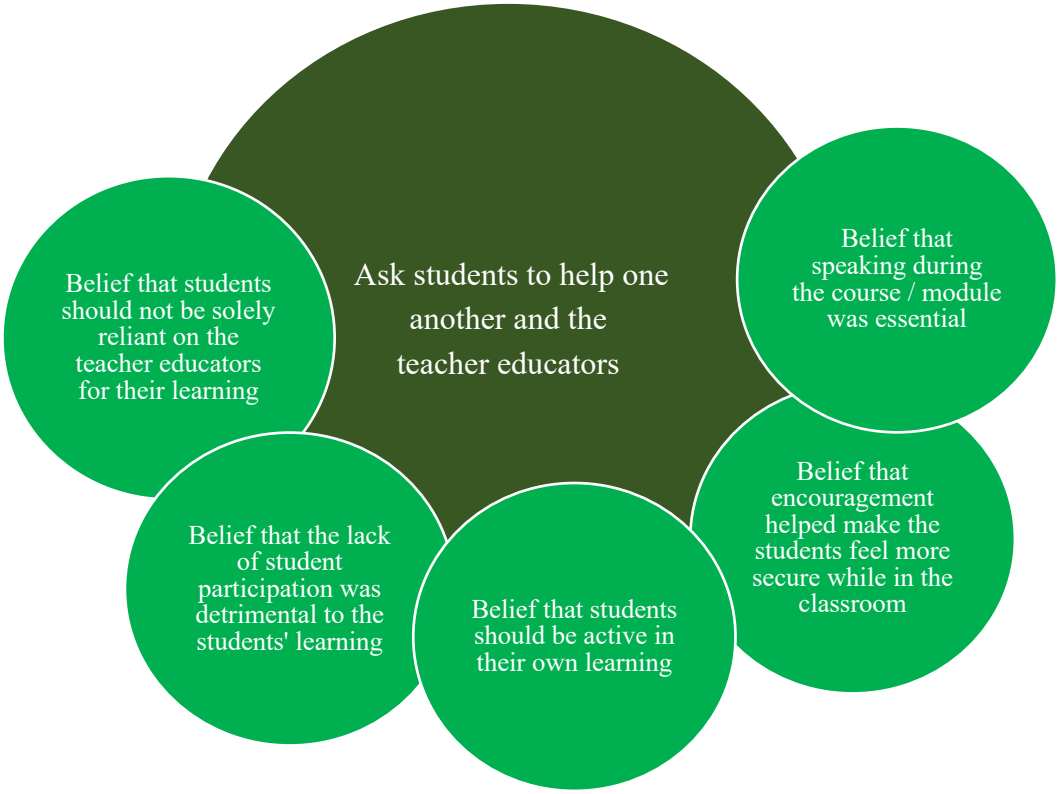
There are several examples that serve to illustrate the multifaceted nature of this theme. One such instance occurred when the participants reported that they would ask their students to assist one another and the teacher educators themselves when they struggled in class. This PAD was shaped by not only the teacher educators' knowledge of self, their students, and the context in which they taught, but also by their beliefs which collectively conveyed a view of learning as involving participation, agency, autonomy, and collaboration. These beliefs included:

1. Speaking during the course was essential;
2. The lack of student participation was detrimental to the students' learning;
3. Encouragement helped make the students feel more secure while in the classroom;
4. Student should be active in their own learning; and

5. Students should not be solely reliant on the teacher educators for their learning.

These internal factors, which operated as a cluster, interacted with one another to various extents and can also be tied to the previously mentioned theme of *modifying classroom behavior* in Section 6.2. This is due to the fact that the participants strongly believed that it was acceptable for them to have finite knowledge and to occasionally make mistakes, as shown above, and would therefore sometime ask their students for help. Figures 5 (on page 153) and 7 both help to illustrate this relationship between the internal factors which influence the participants' PADs. Figure 7 below depicts the beliefs (i.e. the internal factors) which influenced the participants' asking their students to help them and one another.

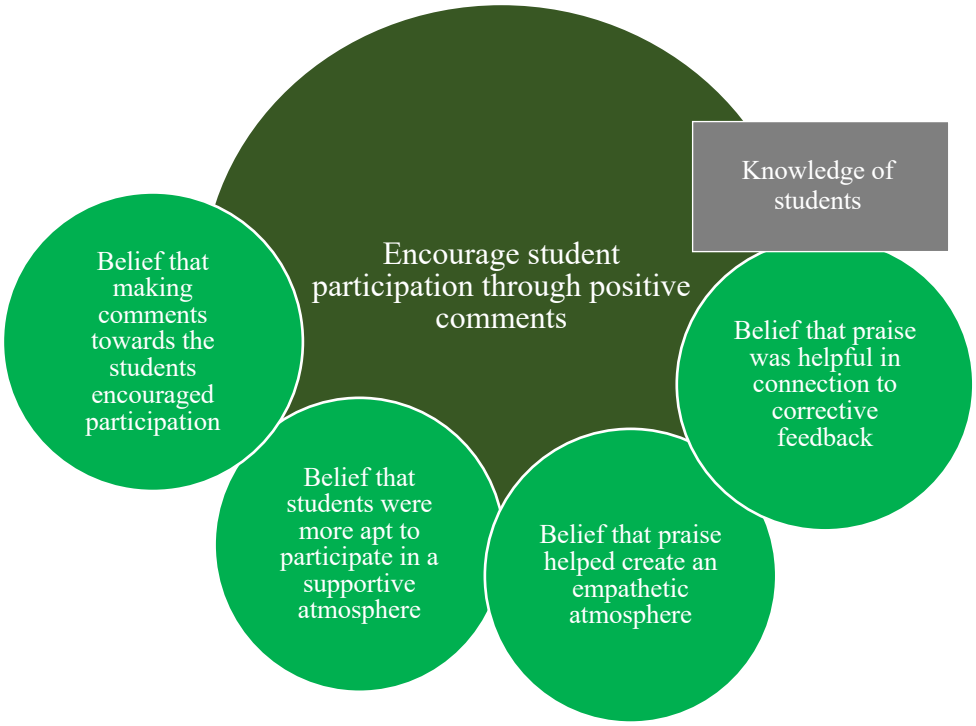
Figure 7: The factors which framed asking students to help one another and the teacher educators



Another example of this complex relationship became evident when the teacher educators encouraged student participation through the use of positive comments. The evidence from this study indicates that the participants were guided to use this PAD primarily by their held beliefs (e.g. that students were more apt to participate in a supportive atmosphere; that

making comments towards the students encouraged participation; that praise helped encourage students; that praise helped create an empathetic atmosphere; and that praise was helpful when delivered in connection to corrective feedback), how the beliefs influenced one another, and the ways in which these beliefs were bolstered by the teacher educators' knowledge of the students (e.g. their students' backgrounds, how and why their students learned English). This relationship is illustrated in Figure 8 below. These findings align with previous studies in, and therefore contribute to, the field of teacher cognition which show that the relationship between teachers' belief systems and their PADs is complex, multifaceted, linked to various degrees and influenced by multiple factors (Buehl & Beck, 2015) and that beliefs work in clusters to guide teachers' PADs (e.g. Borg, 2001; Buehl & Beck, 2015; Burns, 1992; Johnson, 1994; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Skott, 2009).

Figure 8: The internal factors which impacted the use of positive comments to encourage student participation



Furthermore, each of the participants were often observed praising and providing their students with positive comments in order to reassure and encourage them. This was because the teacher educators valued creating a comfortable learning environment for their students, and praise in conjunction with the teacher educators' knowledge of their students aided in creating this. These beliefs augment the existing literature on student participation in that

student participation is indeed more likely to occur within a supportive learning environment (e.g. Hyde & Ruth, 2002; Voelkl, 1995) and that praise does provide encouragement to students (e.g. Conroy, Sutherland, Snyder, Al-Hendawi, & Vo, 2009; Nunn, 1996). For instance, Voelkl (1995) examined how the perceived 'warmth', or 'the degree of teacher warmth, caring, and supportiveness', of the middle school learning environment impacts student participation and achievement (p. 127). The author found that the perception of warmth did relate to increased student participation and achievement in a meaningful way. The study by Hyde & Ruth (2002) observed that the class participation of students was significantly influenced by feelings such as nervousness or unpreparedness; the more nervous or unprepared the students were, the more likely they were to repress their participation. The authors noted that teachers were able to encourage student participation, though, through the creation of 'comfortable and safe learning environments' (p. 253). Moreover, Conroy et al. (2009) found that teachers' praise has the ability to affect the classroom environment by encouraging student involvement and by lessening disruptive student behavior. This supports the study by Nunn (1996), which found a very strong relationship between teacher praise in what was perceived as a 'supportive atmosphere' ('96% of the students surveyed said praise "encourages" or "greatly encourages" their participation', p. 258). The current study complements the finding of the studies outlined above which are related to classroom environment and student engagement as the participants believed that creating a warm, supportive learning environment through the incorporation of praise and positive comments encouraged their students to participate while in class. This was unique because the present study has uncovered findings related to this from the perspective of the educators instead of the students. Moreover, as the participants explained, the use of praise and positive comments was not typical within the wider context of an Argentinian EFL teacher education program. The participants themselves actually stated that they had not experienced an environment like this when they had been learners. Interestingly, the present study does not espouse the study by Hattie & Timperley (2007), which stated that feedback in the form of praise is futile and does not augment student learning.

A further case in point of the interwoven nature between the participants' PADs and internal and external factors became apparent through the teacher educators' use of humor. The data show that the participants were once again largely influenced by their beliefs (the light green circles in Figure 9 on page 159):

1. Humor eased tensions in the classroom;

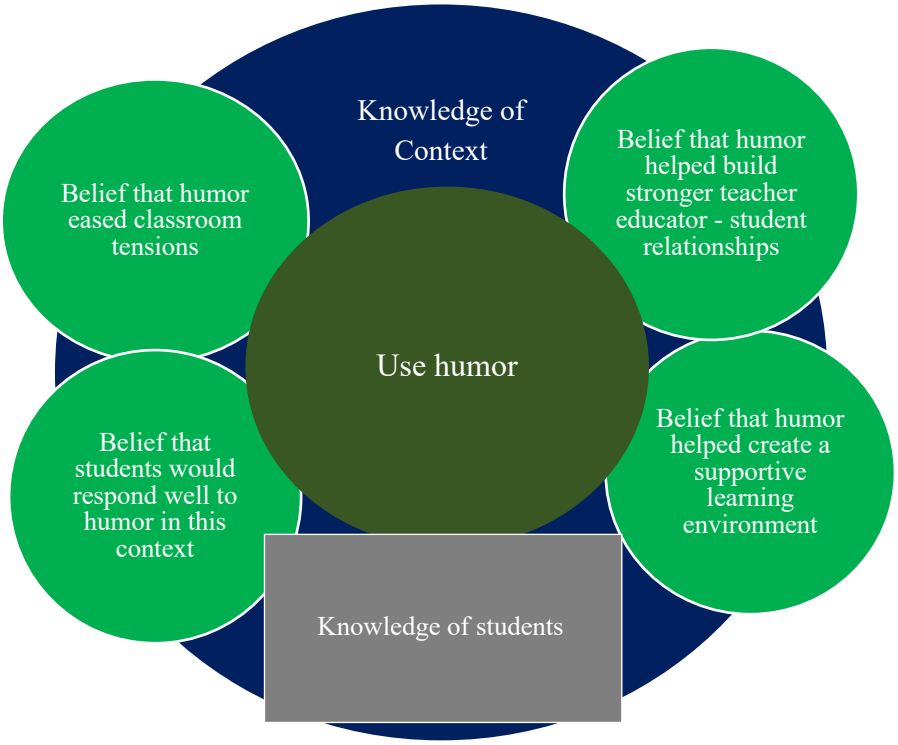
2. Humor helped create a supportive learning environment for the students (which may be seen as being tied to the previously discussed PAD of *encouraging student participation through the use of positive comments*); and
3. Humor helped build a stronger relationship between the teacher educators and their students.

Both Fran and Ines utilized humor quite frequently in their classes. Fran explained that this was often done spontaneously, which corresponds with the study by Lovorn & Holaway (2015) in that most in-class humor used by teachers is done instinctively and unexpectedly. When asked why she chose to also actively incorporate humor into her teaching, Fran explained that she wanted to create a comfortable learning environment that reassured and encouraged her students to learn in. This connection between using humor to establish a comfortable classroom environment is well documented in the canon (e.g. Abu Bakar, 2018; Bell, 2009; Gönülal, 2018; Kher et al., 1999; Senior, 2001; Ziyaeemehr, Kumar, & Abdullan, 2011) and the present study further supports the existing literature. Kher et al. (1999) suggests that humor be used in classrooms, while Bell (2009), Gönülal (2018), and Ziyaeemehr et al. (2011) call for humor to be used in language learning classrooms, as they all perceive it to build a conducive environment and to be beneficial to the students' learning. Furthermore, the doctoral thesis by Abu Bakar (2018) found a very positive relationship between students' perceptions of humor used by their teachers; students were 'more interested in listening to the teacher and the lectures when humour was involved' because they believed this humor made the lectures attention-grabbing and, therefore, the students perceived that humor impacted 'their own capacity to learn more effectively' (p. 145). Abu Bakar's (2018) findings support the study by Sanchez & Borg (2014) which also uncovered that teachers use humor as a pedagogical technique to cope with environmental constraints as well as to boost their students' concentration and attentiveness. Thus, the findings of the current study reinforce the existing literature on humor as a pedagogical technique that teachers and teacher educators can utilize in order to create a comfortable learning environment for their students to participate in.

Additionally, in the current study, the teacher educators' knowledge of the students and the micro-level context also impacted on their employment of humor in the classroom. The teacher educators only referred to this PAD in relation to their rationales for the teaching context (i.e. the physical location where the participants taught and those factors that did not originate from within themselves) as a facilitating external factor, as shown by the large, dark

blue circle in Figure 9 below. In all other cases, they referred to the micro and meso-level contexts as inhibiting their practices (e.g. strikes, cancellations, poor building conditions). Ines, in turn, used humor for not only the pedagogical purpose of aiding in the creation of a comfortable learning atmosphere, but she also employed it in order to contend with the contextual issues (and perhaps the stress that stemmed from these environmental issues). This finding aligns with Sanchez & Borg (2014) who also found that teachers use humor as a means to cope with contextual constraints. For example, humor helped Ines to reiterate rules to her students when she believed it was necessary due to student discipline issues. Thus, the present study adds more to the examination of humor in relation to teachers' pedagogical purposes.

Figure 9: The internal factors which framed using humor in the classroom



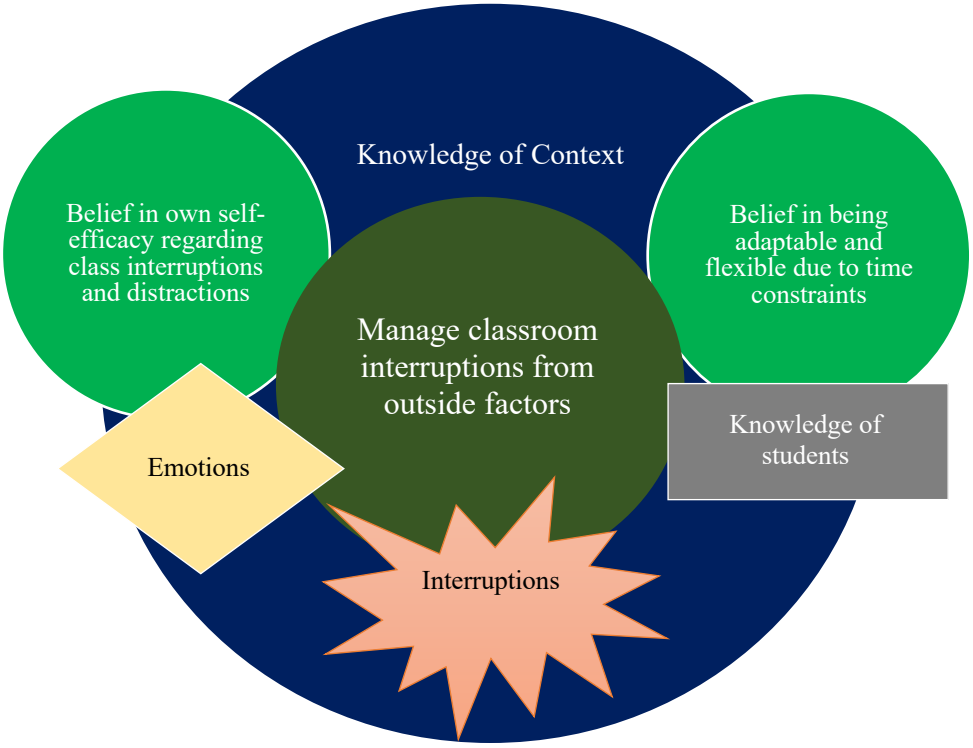
6.4 Addressing contextual issues

The third theme which was identified during this research project was that of *addressing contextual issues*. While some studies (e.g. Basturkmen et al., 2004; Borg, 1998; Jamalzadeh & Shahsavar, 2015) have deemed that there is not a strong connection between teachers' PADs and the context in which they teach, this study shows, and therefore aligns with the body of literature, that indicates that there is indeed a complex, intertwined relationship (e.g.

Borg, 2006; Buehl & Beck, 2015; Fives & Buehl, 2012; Johnson, 1994; Klassen & Chiu, 2011; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Sanchez et al., 2018). For example, while studies such as Buehl & Beck (2015), Ng & Farrell (2003), and Klassen & Chiu (2011) established that contextual factors directly mediate the relationship between teachers' beliefs and PADs. Phipps & Borg (2009) also found that context influences the relationship between teacher beliefs and the teachers' PADs enacted regarding grammar teaching despite a varying amount of correlation. The data from the present study indicate that the five PADs which comprise this theme (see Table 14 on page 149) were shaped by one another and by internal and external factors. Figure 10, on the following page, illustrates one of these PADs, *managing classroom interruptions from outside factors*, and its complex relationship to the unique environmental influences particular to the Argentinian EFL teacher education context (e.g. interruptions from outside factors, time constraints) and internal factors (e.g. beliefs, knowledge, emotions). Firstly, the external factors visibly influenced the teacher educators' implementation of this PAD (i.e. the teacher educators employed certain techniques in an attempt to counter interruptions to their classes). Less evident, however, was the way in which these external micro- and meso-level factors impacted upon the participants' beliefs, knowledge, and emotions. The participants' classes were interrupted frequently by outside forces (e.g. students, student representatives, charities) during the data collection process. When asked about these disruptions and how they affected the participants as teacher educators, each responded that they had developed ways to cope with them. As a case in point Julieta, explained that due to her experience working in this context, she knew that these interruptions had an effect on her perception of her teaching and how the class was going, and on her students' learning. She therefore managed this problem by deciding to preemptively and politely ask those who interrupted her class to come back during the last 15 minutes of class. Julieta felt assertive and empowered by enacting this PAD and believed that it helped her students to focus better in class. Thus, the present study adds value and contributes to the existing literature which has highlighted the strong intertwined relationship between the external, contextual factors and the internal factors of teacher educators (e.g. beliefs, knowledge, emotions) and how these factors have the ability to affect one another.

A further case in point of the participants enacting the PAD of *managing classroom interruptions from outside factors* was identified in the case of Fran. Fran, like Julieta, had acquired substantial knowledge of the context and of her students over her tenure as a teacher educator in this context. She also developed ways to address classroom interruptions,

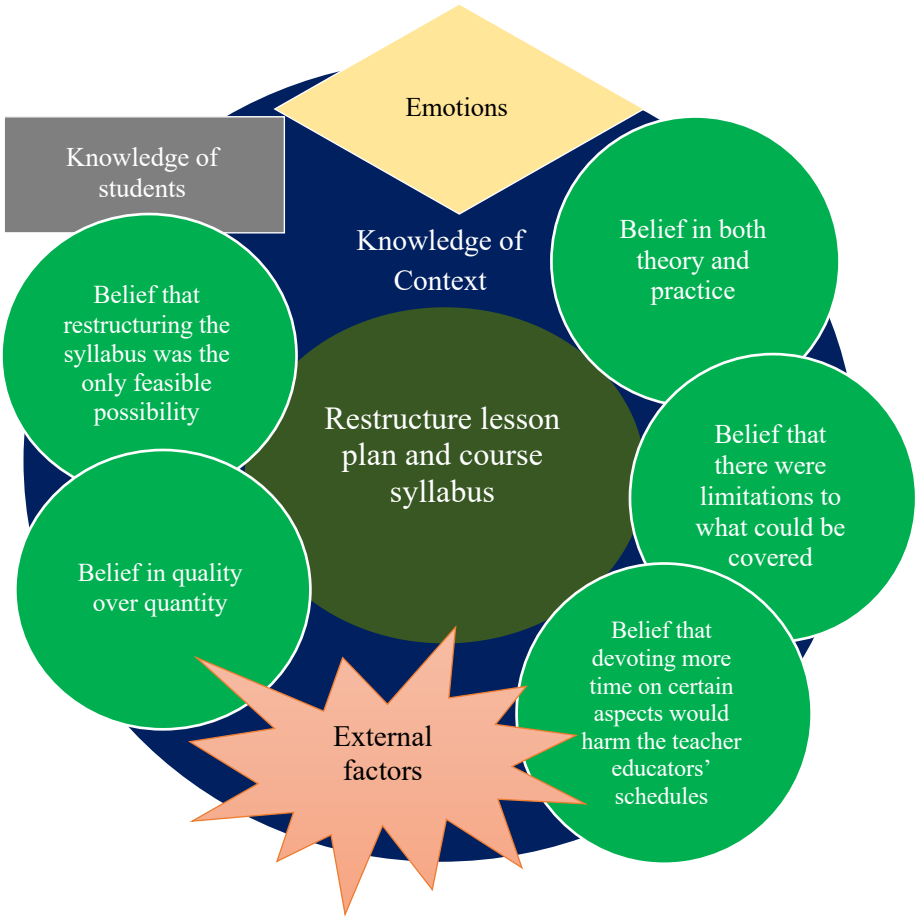
Figure 10: The internal and external factors which shaped how the teacher educators managed classroom interruptions from outside factors



primarily based on the complex interaction between her emotions, her knowledge of the students and context, and her sometimes contradictory held beliefs (e.g. that restructuring the syllabus was the only feasible possibility due to manage time; that there were limitations to what could be covered over the course of a term; that spending more time on certain aspects would make her fall behind schedule; that quality is more important than quantity; that both theory and practice needed be taught; that the students were not aware of the time constraints that the teacher educators faced; and that removing information from the syllabus was detrimental to the students' learning), most notably by choosing to be adaptable and flexible, particularly in the face of the unique prevalence of university cancellations and strikes within this context. Fran felt that such meso- and macro-level, external factors impacted her greatly as they created time constraints to her teaching, and thus to what she perceived she was able to accomplish while in the classroom. She expressed that she was keenly aware of time-related issues and she felt pressured due to these time constraints but accepted that they were part of her reality in this context. Therefore, she chose to be flexible and adaptable (e.g. cutting down and restructuring her lesson plans and the course syllabus so as to focus on quality, in-depth analysis rather than rushing to cover more material superficially) in how she

managed such issues, even though she clearly expressed emotions of remorse for not being able to teach everything she had initially planned (see Figure 11 below). This multiplicity of factors which mediated Fran's teaching practice of restructuring her lesson plan and course syllabus is shown in Figure 11 below and supports Buehl & Beck's (2015) findings that the link between teachers' beliefs and practices is often not linear or causal but rather complex and intertwined in nature. Time-related concerns and issues have also been found in studies by Borg & Riding (1991) and Farrell & Lim (2005), who noted that the PADs of experienced teachers can be inhibited by the aspect of time. The present study contributes to advancing the existing knowledge on the impact that time-related issues, particularly those brought about by contextual factors, have on the PADs of teacher educators by clearly demonstrating that the complex relationship between teacher educators' cognitions and PADs are directly influenced by issues of time.

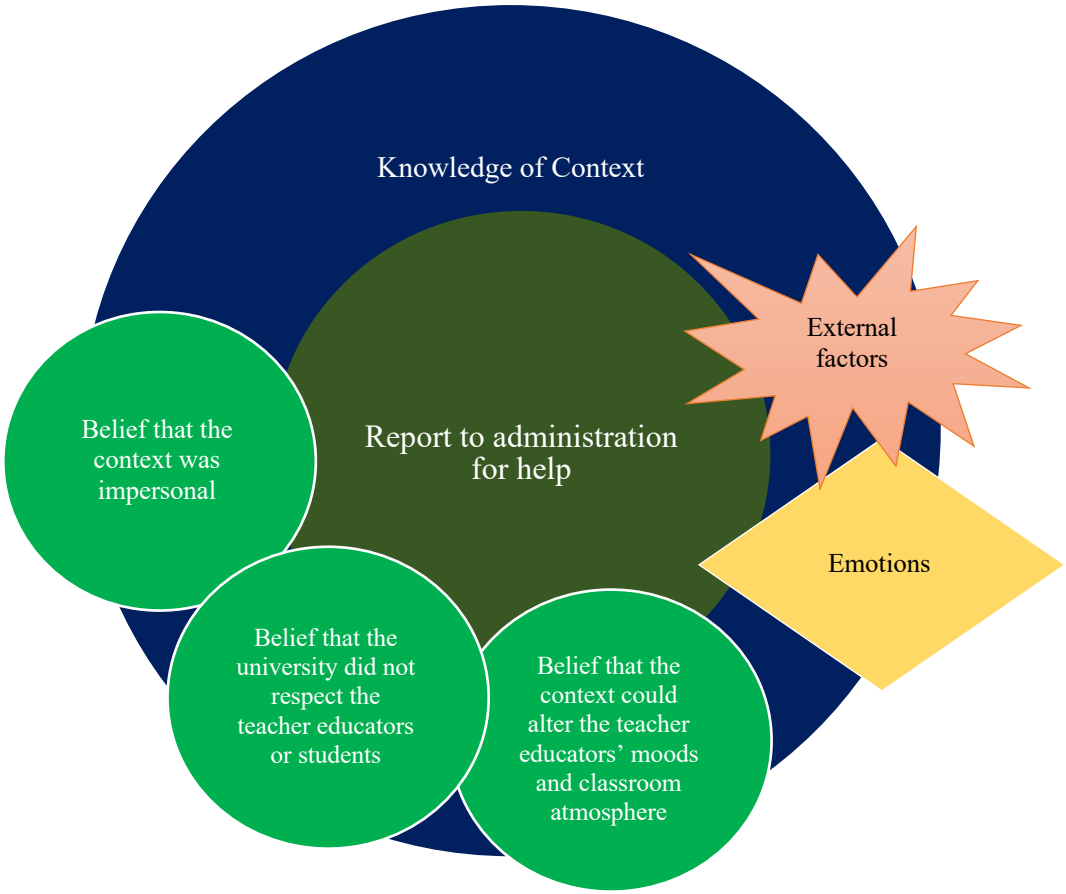
Figure 11: The internal and external factors which influenced Fran to restructure her lesson plan and course syllabus



Both Fran and Ines expressed that they perceived that the university's working environment was not supportive of them as teacher educators but continued to work in this meso-context as they believed the university had a prominent reputation, that their job as teacher educators was important, and, most importantly, that they loved working in their current roles. This working environment typically affected the participants and their PADs in a subtle manner (i.e. resorted to joking about the run-down conditions of the buildings, the birds in the classrooms) when 'normal' environmental situations presented themselves in class. However, the working environment could be seen as affecting Fran's PADs, particularly in regard to the lack of heating in the classrooms. One such example of how she addressed contextual issues became evident when Fran *resorted to reporting to the administrative staff for help* with what she perceived as being a serious contextual issue. This relationship is depicted in Figure 12 on the following page. In this instance, which appeared to be very significant for her, the heating was turned off in her classroom and, as it was during the middle of winter, Fran experienced strong emotions. She became very upset and angry and stopped her class to bring this issue to administration. She also raised her voice, which was very unusual and had not been noticed on previous classroom observations. This lack of heating acted as a negative external factor which not only influenced how Fran felt, but also impacted upon her belief system in that she believed that the university did not respect her or her students as people or their needs. She, therefore, perceived the psychological context to be impersonal and that this context, which was reinforced by Fran's emotions, could alter her moods, level of satisfaction with her career and level of burnout (i.e. Fran noted that during situations such as that which occurred with the heating caused her to feel less efficacious and satisfied with her career and accordingly higher levels of burnout), and thus also impact the classroom atmosphere and her students' learning. Consequently, the emotions that the teacher educators experienced in this study proved to be an extremely significant factor and were strong enough to not only shape the participants' PADs and their held beliefs (i.e. in moments of extreme emotions these feelings were stronger than teachers' stated beliefs), but also their levels of career satisfaction, identity related to one's career, and burnout which supports existing works which have been conducted on the career dissatisfaction (Schutz & Zembylas, 2009) burnout (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009; 2010) that teachers experience. This finding is significant because while teacher emotions have been included in more recent conceptualizations of teacher cognition (e.g. Golombek & Doran, 2014; Zembylas, 2005), little research has been conducted exploring how the relationship between teachers' emotions and their cognitive constructs impact upon their practice (Frenzel, 2014). Thus, the current

study offers important insights into the power that emotions have to influence teacher cognitions.

Figure 12: The internal and external factors which caused Fran to report to administrative staff for help

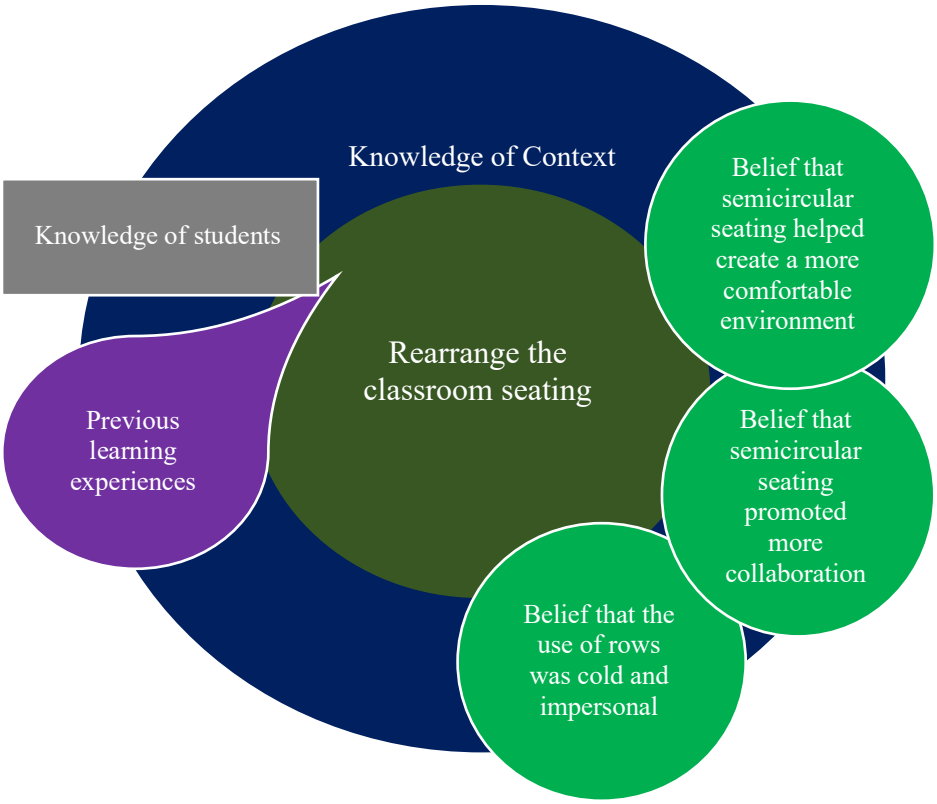


6.5 Creating student-centric learning

The fourth theme which became apparent during this study is that of *creating student-centric learning*. There were nine PADs nested under this theme (see Table 14 on page 149) which were influenced by one another and by internal and external factors in a multiplicious manner. One significant PAD which emerged was the teacher educators' choice to *rearrange the classroom seating*, which is shown in Figure 13 on the next page. This decision was informed by the participants' internal factors, most notably their knowledge of their students, their own previous learning experiences, and the participants' beliefs that were reinforced by the context, and which, in turn, reinforced one another. While each of the teacher educators were observed rearranging the classroom seating, Fran emphasized doing so more concertedly. She preferred to rearrange her classrooms' seating to a semicircle. When asked

why she did this, Fran explained that she believed semicircular seating helped create a more comfortable learning environment as she believed that the use of rows, which was traditionally more prevalent within this context, was cold and impersonal (i.e. a belief which was informed by her own experience as a learner) and that it also promoted more student-teacher educator collaboration during classes. These beliefs were not only shaped by Fran's previous learning experience but also by her knowledge of the students (e.g. that her students tended to participate more when in a semicircle), how the context they were learning in impacted upon them (e.g. that the learning atmosphere was very important and that semicircular seating seemed to create a more comfortable environment), and by each other (e.g. the belief that semicircular seating created a more comfortable learning environment which in turn promoted more student-teacher educator collaboration). Each of these internal factors influenced one another and thus the PAD of *rearranging the classroom seating* would potentially not be possible without this unique combination of factors. This finding aligns with and supports the existing literature on how the complex interaction of multiple factors have the ability to influence the relationship between teachers' cognitions and their PADs (e.g. Borg, 2006; Buehl & Beck, 2015; Fives & Buehl, 2012; Johnson, 1994; Klassen & Chiu, 2011; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Sanchez et al., 2018).

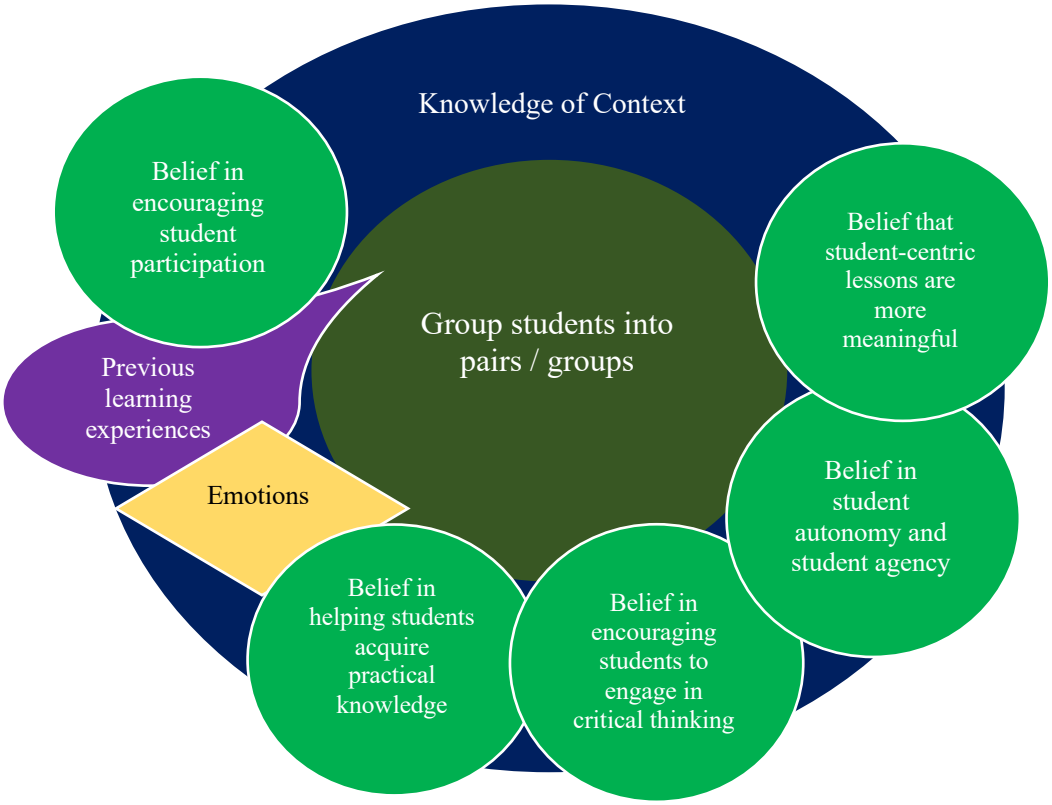
Figure 13: The internal and external factors which influenced the teacher educators to engage in the rearrangement of the classroom seating



Another example of a PAD which came to light in reference to the theme of *creating student-centric learning* was *encouraging student participation* through the use of such sub-PADs as *grouping the students into pairs/groups* (which can be seen in Figure 14 on page 167), *using visual aids*, and *setting up classroom discussions*. As with above, each of these PADs was also informed to various extents by the complex interaction of multiple internal factors of knowledge of the students, knowledge of the context, and beliefs of the teacher educators. These beliefs included that student-centric lessons were more meaningful for the students, that student agency and student autonomy were important, that it is imperative to encourage the students to engage in critical thinking, and that it is essential to help the students acquire practical knowledge. The participants' knowledge of their students within this context, as well as their own previous learning experiences, influenced the teacher educators' beliefs and these beliefs, in turn, reinforced one another. For instance, each of the participants noted that grouping students into pairs or groups was a beneficial technique as they believed that this encouraged student participation and created more meaningful learning opportunities for the students (see Figure 14 on the next page for a visual representation of this relationship). These finding in the present study, which show that these beliefs were partially formed by the participants' own previous learning experiences (e.g. the lack of this type of groupwork when they were students), which aligns with and strengthens the extensive existing literature in this area (e.g. Lortie, 1975; Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Moodie, 2016; Numrich, 1996; Pajares, 1992; Sanchez, 2013; Tillema, 1994), and their knowledge of the students (e.g. that they believed the students enjoyed engaging with their peers while learning). These beliefs were also informed by other beliefs underlying this PAD (e.g. student- centric lessons were more meaningful because they engaged the students' agency and encouraged them to think critically) thereby once again illustrating the complex multiplicity of the interaction between the influential internal and external factors and the teacher educators' PADs. Thus, the present study offers further contributions to the literature which shows that the relationship between teachers' cognitions and practice is complex, intertwined, and multifaceted.

Furthermore, the data revealed that the teacher educators felt happy and satisfied when they perceived that student-centric lessons had proven to be more meaningful for the students and that engaging students to participate promoted critical thinking. This can be seen as being closely related to teacher educators' desire to *activate the students' background knowledge*, which may be seen as a separate theme. The participants engaged in several PADs which encouraged their students' criticality, such as asking questions and eliciting information from

Figure 14: The internal and external factors which influenced the teacher educators to group students into pairs/groups



the students in order to activate their background knowledge. Interestingly, each of these PADs was shaped by the same complex set of internal factors: the participants' beliefs, their knowledge of the students, and the emotions they felt while enacting these PADs. The teacher educators expressed that the following beliefs impacted each of the abovementioned PADs:

- It is beneficial for students to engage in a cognitive 'struggle' while learning;
- It is important to foster student agency and autonomy;
- It is preferable to engage in collaborative learning (student-student; teacher educator-student);
- It is imperative to employ a student-centric approach to learning.

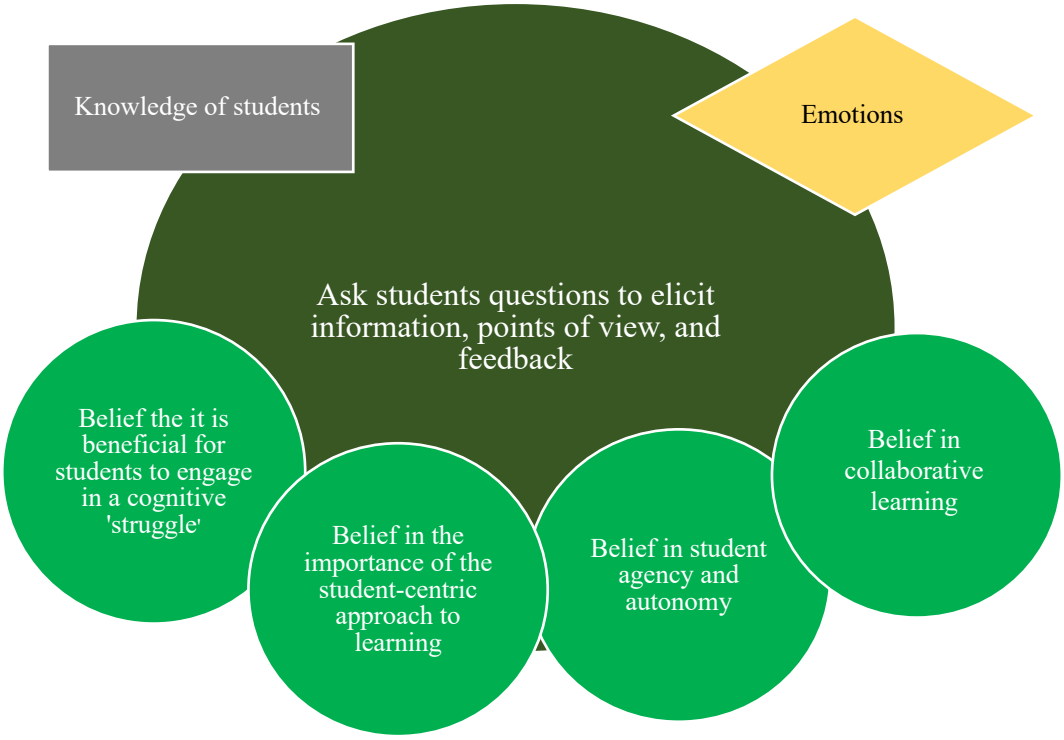
Additionally, these beliefs also influenced one another. For instance, in combination with the knowledge of their students and how they would react, the teacher educators' belief that it was more beneficial for students to engage in a sort of cognitive 'struggle' than for the teacher educators to immediately provide the answers not only impacted their other beliefs but was also reinforced by them. As a case in point, Fran stressed that she preferred for her students to go through this 'struggle' as she believed her students learned more and remembered better when they were given opportunities to enact their own agency and

autonomy as learners. Additionally, Fran's preference for student-centric learning and her belief in collaborative learning guided her belief in the importance of the students undergoing a cognitive 'struggle'. This became apparent when Fran would either ask her students questions in an attempt to elicit information from them or when she would ask other students to help their classmate who was having trouble finding an answer rather than having the students be reliant on the teacher educators to immediately provide the correct information. Moreover, Fran explained that she felt satisfied and content when her students were able to obtain the information needed by going through this process. This process was observed in the cases of Ines and Julieta as well. Through the use of these PADs and the complex relationship of internal factors underpinning them, the teacher educators were able to model a belief that they regarded as being very important to their students' learning and for their students' future careers as educators. This complex, multifaceted relationship is depicted in Figure 15 on the following page and further illustrates how the present study adds to the existing literature on the important interaction between teacher educators' cognitions and practices.

6.6 Summary

The purposes of this chapter were to examine the findings described in Chapter Five in relation to the pertinent existing literature and to provide clear answers to my third research question (i.e. What role do these internal and external factors play in influencing the teacher educators' PADs?). This chapter has shown that a variety of factors, both internal and external, operate together in complex clusters to influence the PADs employed by teacher educators in the unique context of an EFL higher education teacher education program in Argentina.

Figure 15: The internal factors which promoted the teacher educators to ask their students questions as a means to elicit information



Chapter Seven: Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

The intention of this study was to further the field of education's current understanding of the PADs experienced EFL teacher educators implement and how internal and external factors influence these PADs in the under-researched context of an English language teacher education program at a state university in Argentina. The primary implications and the contributions to the existing knowledge of my research are discussed (Section 7.2). Next, the limitations of this investigation (Section 7.3) and the recommendations for future research follow. Lastly, this thesis closes with overall concluding remarks about my personal research journey (Section 7.5)

7.2 Implications and contributions to knowledge

The aim of this section is to discuss the main implications that have arisen from this study. These implications, whether they be empirical, methodological, theoretical, or practical, have the potential to benefit a wide-ranging audience including researchers who focus on teacher educator cognitions, university level teacher educators within the context of Latin America, and those involved in the professional development of teacher educators by assisting these individuals to better understand how internal and external influences interact with one another and thereby affect the PADs they make.

7.2.1 Teacher educator cognition researchers

I believe that the findings of the present study have significant methodological implications for future research that is conducted on the cognitions of teacher educators. Implications from this study are also potentially valid for researchers who utilize a constructivist, qualitative methodology, specifically those who engage with the research tradition of embedded case studies and the data collection methods of autobiographical interviews, classroom observations, fieldnotes, and stimulated-recall research interviews as the present investigation offers a clear, descriptive example of these data collection instruments that may serve to assist future novice researchers. The present study also has the potential to offer innovative methodological insights into how qualitative research data, particularly those generated by means of research interviews as the primary data collection instrument, can be co-created and meaning negotiated through the interaction between the interviewees and the interviewer.

Moreover, the present study offers theoretical implications specifically regarding the understanding of language teacher educators' PADs. This research project found that the observed PADs of teacher educators were influenced by both internal (e.g. beliefs, knowledge, motivation, emotions) and external (e.g. micro-, meso-, meso-level) factors. These conclusions confirm, and add to, previously conducted studies within the canon of literature on the cognitions of teachers and teacher educators which have shown that teachers' cognitions are capable of influencing their pedagogical actions and decisions (e.g. Buehl & Beck, 2015; Fives & Buehl, 2017; Sanchez & Borg, 2014). The results from the existing literature are quite varied in that some studies have revealed that the cognitions and PADs of teacher educators are in strong alignment (e.g. Andrews, 2003) while other studies have shown that they are somewhat incongruent (e.g. Basturkmen et al., 2004; Borg & Sanchez, 2020; Johnson, 1994; Phipps & Borg, 2009). The findings from this current investigation correspond with the latter category and have shown that the internal factors (i.e. cognitions) of teacher educators' affect their PADs to various degrees and that factors that influence one teacher educator may not have the same impact on another teacher educator. For example, this study indicated that each of the participants' own experiences with learning had the ability to affect how, and to what degree, their PADs are enacted – each participant expressed that they were influenced to become teachers due to their own teachers and that they had at some point in their careers actively tried to emulate or dissociate from their previous teachers. This variance in the relationship between factors and PADs may be due to the fact that internal and external factors tend to work in clusters, rather than laterally, to influence the PADs of teacher educators, which was one of the main outcomes that emerged in the findings of the present inquiry. This finding thereby supports previous research conducted on belief clusters and how these clusters affect teachers' PADs by scholars such as Beswick (2012), Cross (2009), Fives & Buehl (2017), Green (1971), Haser & Doğun (2012), and Pajares (1992) and suggests that cognitive clusters play an important role in impacting the PADs of teacher educators and need to be considered further in order to better understand their complexity and their dynamic nature.

In addition, the current study uncovered that it is the intersection of the teacher educators' perceptions (i.e. a form of cognition) of the external, contextual factors that affect the enacted relationship between teachers' cognitions and PADs; this aligns with other research in this are (e.g. Ajzen, 1991; Bullock, 2010; Goddard, 2000; Sanchez & Borg, 2014). The participants' perceptions of the context, particularly in regard to time-related issues, featured

heavily in the findings of the present investigation and suggests that this is a relationship that needs to be explored in greater depth in future studies. Furthermore, the findings from this research project have revealed that more exploration into the complex connection between teacher educators' emotions, their cognitive constructs, and their pedagogical practices needs to be conducted in order for the field to gain a better understanding of the power that emotions have to influence the cognitions and PADs of teacher educators.

7.2.2 University level EFL teacher educators

As this examination was conducted within the context of an EFL teacher education program at the university level in Argentina, the findings of the present study may have empirical and practical implications for research that is conducted within similar contexts, particularly those in Latin America, and with participants who have comparable backgrounds and experience as those in the current study. While a little research has been performed on EFL teacher educators who work at the university level in other geographic locations (e.g. Tleuov, 2016; Wyatt & Dikilitas, 2019) and on some of the cognitive factors of EFL teachers within Latin America (e.g. Chacon, 2005), there is a dearth of research that has been done on university level EFL teacher educators in the context of Latin America (e.g. Gómez Argüelles, Méndez, & Perales Escudero, 2019; Sanchez, 2010). Thus, the present study has empirical implications as it adds a unique data set about a participant type in a context that has been under-researched within the literature and, consequently, the community of university level EFL teacher educators must be further investigated not only in Latin America, but worldwide, as valuable insights are waiting to be gathered from this considerable grouping of experienced, erudite educators.

7.2.3 Continuing professional development for teacher educators

Except for their participation within mandatory university-led research committees that focused on publications and conference presentations, each of the participants who took part in the present study noted that they did not have the opportunity to actively engage in any form of continuing professional development (CPD) at the institution in which they worked. When asked if they would have liked to partake in CPD which focused on and supported their everyday classroom practices, their planning, and/or their mental well-being, all of the participants stated that they would have very much appreciated such a program. Thus, empirical implications for the CPD of teacher educators arose during this investigation as it provided an original data set concerning the language teacher professional development

literature within this overlooked context.

It is possible that a form of CPD could be established in order to address this desire. For example, in spite of their level of experience, CPD development in the form of mentoring or coaching may have proven useful for each of the participants when they experienced stress due to time-related, external issues (e.g. Onchwari & Keengwe, 2008; Rhodes & Beneicke, 2002; Van Driel, Beijaard, & Verloop, 2001). By instituting and engaging with CPD, the teacher educators in this investigation would be encouraged to reflect on their pedagogical practices and the factors that influence them and thereby to grow as professionals. Thus, the examples provided in the present study suggest that there are practical implications for access to further CPD from which teacher educators can benefit.

7.3 Limitations

The findings and implications of this study need to be examined in reference to the study's possible limitations. These limitations are as follows:

1. Due to the present study's qualitative nature, the fact that it occurred at one university, and that it consisted of a very small sample size, it is impossible to generalize that each of the themes discussed in Chapter Six are relevant and applicable to all university level EFL teacher educators as a specific set of unique conditions underlaid the present study. In spite of these factors, replication/transferability of this study can be possible, even if the results differ greatly, due to the depth of the data collection process and the data themselves.
2. Semi-structured, stimulated recall interviews (e.g. the primary data set) and classroom observations and fieldnotes (e.g. the secondary data sets) were used to explore the connection between the participants' PADs and the internal and external factors which mediated their practices. I sought to minimize the potential limitations of this study by augmenting the use of verbal discourse as the primary data collection method with observational data as another means of data collection.
3. As explained in Chapter Four, it is possible that my attendance in my participants' classes caused them to alter how they normally behaved while teaching ('Hawthorne Effect', Cohen et al., 2011). In order to combat this, I took steps to observe the usual, natural classroom practices of the participants:
    - I explained thoroughly, in person, and reminded my participants regularly that my intention was to observe them in classes which were natural and

not prepared and that I would not judge what I had observed;

- I only let my participants know the main objectives of my study so as to impede the participants from altering their behavior unconsciously to align with the aims of this study (Cohen et al., 2011);
- I always sat in the back of class, remained quiet, and only responded during observation periods when directly asked a question by the participants or a student in order to maintain a low.

Also, it is important to mention that my participants and I developed very close relationships over the 10-month data collection period and that these relationships may have affected how they reported what they felt, thought, believed, and how they perceived the internal and external factors they experienced influenced their PADs. In order to combat this, I reminded my participants regularly that my research relied on them expressing their actual cognitions and that I would not criticize or judge their actions.

4. I am, and was throughout the entire data collection process, conscious of my own bias, due to my background, and of the concept of researcher subjectivity as my understanding of the themes are grounded on my own interpretation of what occurred during the observations and interviews with the participants (Richardson & St. Pierre, 2005). The actions I took in order to minimize my bias are noted in Section 4.7 on reflexivity above.
5. Lastly, as discussed in Sections 4.2 and 4.4.1, the working language of the present study was English instead of the participants' mother tongue, Spanish. This decision was not made lightly and was solely made out of necessity due to my low level of Spanish at the beginning of my data collection process. I was very aware that this decision may be perceived as being a limitation to my study as my participants may have felt it difficult to express their perceptions of their cognitions in their second language and, therefore, I actively tried to minimize any issues of confusion and marginalization that my participants may have experienced through being empathetic and utilizing open, clear communication. I think it would be very interesting to conduct this study again in Spanish as the results yielded may prove to be different.

These limitations, while imperative to acknowledge, do not lessen the present study's findings or implications when considered within the entire context of the study and the steps taken to reduce their impact. Furthermore, the limitations discussed above have helped me to identify

some areas that would benefit from future research and this is examined in the following section.

7.4 Recommendations for future research

I would like to make the following five recommendations for future research based on the findings, implications, and limitations of the present study.

- The present study should be replicated in comparable, under-researched contexts, particularly within other areas of Latin America. This would serve to increase the trustworthiness, credibility, and transferability of the findings uncovered in the current qualitative study. I believe it would also be very interested to see if the findings obtained by a fully bilingual (English/Spanish) researcher differ greatly in a replicated study.
- As the current study was conducted over a relatively short period of time, it would be interesting to perform a similar study on a longitudinal scale in order to garner an even better understanding of who each participant is and the PADs they typically employ. This would thereby make the participants' usage of certain PADs in specific instances more predominant. Additionally, a longitudinal study would allow for the participants' knowledge to grow as they engage in a longer period of self-reflection. Moreover, I think it would be very interesting if a similar study were conducted where the researcher's fieldnotes are called upon more in order to provide further rich data to the project.
- Similar investigations should also be done which observe the teachers/teacher educators working with various groupings of students on different modules within the same environmental setting so as to examine consistency of the teacher educator's PADs across different contexts.
- As noted in Section 6.4, there is a dearth of research regarding the multidirectional relationship between teacher and teacher educator' cognition and their emotions and how this interplay affects their pedagogical practices. This is an area that has only started to be touched upon and I believe much more research should be conducted in this area in order to better understand this complex connection.
- While this study did focus on multifaceted relationships, it did not focus on the interplay between the PADs employed by the teacher educators and the internal and external factors that influenced said PADs in regard to the learning of the students. It

would therefore be enlightening to add the students' perceptions of how and in which ways their teacher educators' PADs have the power to impact their learning.

7.5 Concluding remarks

The act of undertaking the present study for my doctoral degree at the University of Bath has not only contributed greatly to my professional development as a researcher (i.e. designing a research project, critically analyzing existing literature and identifying gaps, collecting and analyzing data, reporting my findings) and a member of the wider research community (e.g. presenting at conferences, gaining publication experience, and partaking in a larger European Union funded research project) but has also allowed me to fulfill a lifelong, personal goal of studying at the doctoral level. I have always respected my teachers/educators and several of them have acted as my mentors, therefore I wanted to further my education, as they had, in order to become a more critical thinker and to contribute to the canon of literature for future researchers.

This research journey has not only allowed me to achieve the goals mentioned above but I have also grown in regard to other aspects. This process was definitely one that was grounded in learning and took more time to complete than I had initially anticipated, but I believe that this was the right path and timeline for me, my academic growth, and development as a researcher. Over the past several years, I have learned to value feedback and constructive criticism, which has been very important both personally and professionally. Prior to starting this journey, I struggled with not only expressing myself in a coherent and cohesive manner, but I also feared receiving feedback and constructive criticism. During my time as a doctoral student, however, I realized that this feedback and criticism not only served to help me clarify my ideas but also allowed me to develop my critical thinking skills. I no longer fear feedback or constructive criticism but instead welcome it as an opportunity for growth (e.g. to make my research and writing skills stronger). Additionally, I acquired extensive knowledge about qualitative research and how my epistemological position of subjectivism influences my world view and, therefore, the type of research I am intrinsically drawn to. I believe that realities are socially intertwined, co-created amongst all actors, and should be allowed to emerge organically. Engaging in this doctoral study helped me to understand this position better and for me to solidify my epistemological beliefs. Moreover, I have furthered my knowledge regarding research methods and feel much more comfortable and confident conducting research interviews. I also better understand how to utilize my fieldnotes and the

importance of how using multiple secondary data sets increases the trustworthiness of a study. Lastly, I improved my understanding of and expertise in the areas of teacher educator, teaching pedagogy, teacher educator PADs, and the internal and external factors that influence these PADs. Whether I decide to continue my career in education or not, I believe that I have learned to think critically and have gained knowledge throughout this doctoral process which will assist me in understanding the internal and external factors which motivate people, and myself, to act in certain manners.

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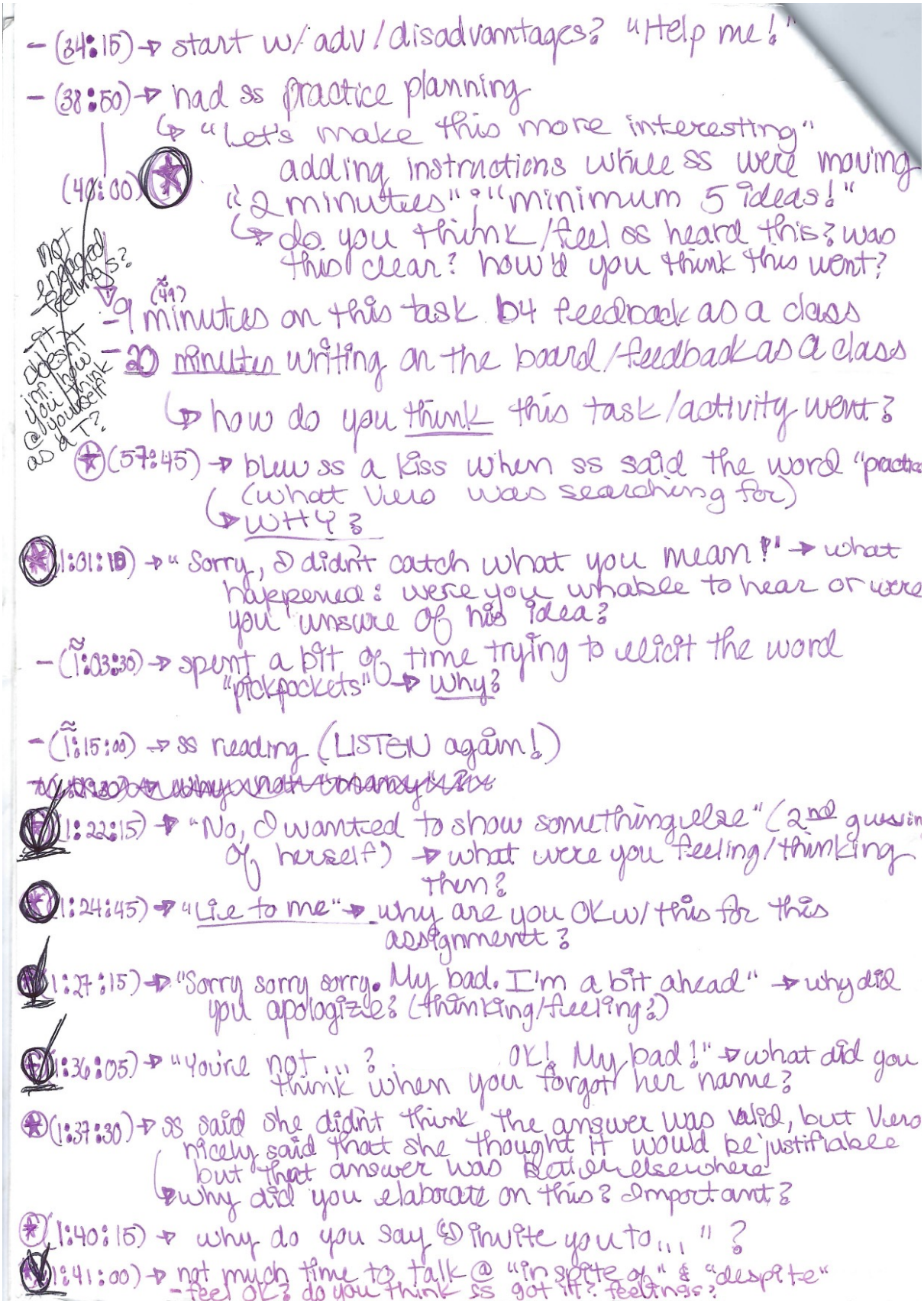
Appendix 1: Semi-structured background interview

Background Questions

1. What is your name? Age? Where are you from?
2. What is your educational background?
3. When did you first start learning English?
4. Do you remember the ways in which your teachers instructed you?
5. What were your learning preferences?
6. What made you interested in going into teaching? And into teacher education?
7. How long have you been teaching? Please describe the contexts you have worked in (the locations and schools/institutions you have taught in)
8. What type of classes do you typically teach?
9. What ages and level have you taught?
10. How long have you been working in English education?
    a. At the university level?
    b. In English language teacher education?
11. What teacher training have you undergone? Where? For how long? What did your training specifically focus on?
12. What was your experience with your own teacher educators? Did they have an influence on you and the way you teach? If possible, please illustrate with examples.
13. Do you partake in regular feedback sessions with a mentor/manager/senior colleague?
14. Do you ever seek support concerning your teaching and career? What are some sources of support (within and outside the institution) that you can turn to?
15. What aspects of teaching do you enjoy? Please give specific examples.
16. What aspects of teaching to do you find difficult? Please give specific
17. How do you typically structure your classes?
18. Are there any teaching techniques that you prefer to use? If so, why?
19. Are there any teaching techniques that you prefer not to use? If so, why?
20. Are there any teaching responsibilities in which you feel particularly good at? If so, what are they and why?
21. Are there any teaching responsibilities in which you do not feel comfortable with/confident with? If so, what are they and why?
22. Is there anything else that you would like to add?

Appendix 2: Sample of lesson observation notes



Appendix 3: Sample of stimulated-recall interview (Ines, SRI6, p. 1)

1. At (1:40) you mention that you will post marks on Facebook. Why? Is this a normal practice?

2. At (5:30) you mentioned to the students that they should 'not be afraid' to refer back to the book? Why did you mention this? How do you think the students perceived this comment? (Perhaps move on to further questions about giving students advice) → Carry on to (11:10) when asked the students 'to take a minute to read that part' in the novel: Does this comment have any bearing on your earlier comment telling students to refer back to the book?

3. At (19:15) you ask the students to read aloud in class. Why? What are your beliefs about reading aloud?

4. At (21:30) a student said the word 'insane' and you replied 'well, not exactly' with a hand motion like this (demonstrate). Why did you choose to correct this vocabulary choice like this? Eventually, you offered the term 'mentally handicapped': Why did you choose to offer this term after some conversation with the student instead of offering an immediate correction?

5. At (36:40) you checked the time. Why? What were your feelings at this time? (Were you consciously aware of time in the class?)

6. After the in-class activity, a student outside the classroom was trying to get one of your student's attention (at 1:05:30). What was your perception of this instance? Did this affect you? (Seemed to distract the participant as she lost her train of thought)

7. At (1:11:00) you wanted a student to read a part of the novel aloud but she was having trouble finding the exact spot. She looked for the spot for approximately 30 second: What were your thoughts at this time? Did you consider having another student read aloud? Did you consider reading that part yourself? Why did you want that particular student to read? (Did this instance impact your sense of time in this class?)

Appendix 4: Sample interview transcript (Fran, SRI3 pp. 11-13)

[00:31:13]

K: So, there were a few examples, but I'm just going to pick two of them. It was at one point, I believe it was after you had been talking about function and structure, and you were trying to elicit some information from them, which I will play, and then you finally got to the point where you said, "What I was trying to ask and no one realized was 'memorable.'" And so, I wanted to play that for you because in other instances you just keep eliciting and you keep eliciting and at this point, you finally just said, "Enough."

F: Yeah. They didn't realize.

K: Okay. So, let me just get to that. [played audio recording for participant] No. So, I was wondering, exactly why did you finally just say, "All right"?

F: Because after a while, I noticed they wouldn't what I was referring to. Maybe it was very difficult to realize the word, but they came up with 'meaningful', but they didn't … no because maybe it's not a concept that they have very … I don't know if clear, but I don't know if it's a concept they think about when they think of presentations, to make it memorable in the long run.

K: When you gave that example, it seemed like the students understood.

F: Oh, yes.

K: They all said, "Oh, right. Ah." How important do you think it was for you to point that out to them?

F: Because it's, again, it's not a concept that they usually associate presentations with. They know about other things but they don't ask themselves this, and whenever you see when they present new language, in the future, when I see them in [name of module], for example, they don't make things stand out, or to find something more original, or something that will make the students remember in the long run. Being this visual, or funny, or out of the ordinary, those are things, what makes it different are what make it more memorable, I suppose. If it's always the same, the students will have more difficulty remembering in the long run. But if they see something striking or maybe help them remember better. Of course, it's not always easy to find something of the sort, but at least to try to be more creative, do some things in other ways.

[00:35:26]

K: Do you feel that that is something that you actively try to do in your classes?

F: I try to. That's why I use so many visuals, examples maybe, even if I don't write them or show them, but in the way in which I say things, or the gestures and everything is trying to make it more visual, or maybe a funny comment, or something that … it comes out naturally. But I think it helps remember, in my opinion.

K: Yeah. Which is completely valid. Then, let's see. There was another there a point towards

the end of the class where you again were eliciting and you, I believe this was the point where you were going over the task, so checking what they had done in the task, and you said something along the lines, which I'll queue it up here in a minute, but "You forgot to refer to what in general what do you forget, I want you to go beyond this." I think one of the students said 'relevance', but I'm going to play the example for you because I was quite curious about what was happening here. [plays audio recording for participant]

F: The question was again … sorry?

K: No, it's okay. So, you spent time trying to draw out the information and, so, in the other situation you also spent a long time drawing it out, but you eventually gave them the information, and in this situation you didn't. Why was this instance different than the times before?

F: Because this was a more difficult part, because this is the first time they reflect on this, so I wanted to see how far they could realize by having experienced it. By having done it on their own, without the framework or the criteria, to see what they had noticed on their own. To see if they can be aware of what they do, and how they do it, in comparison to something when you have a tool or instrument such as a criteria list, or a checklist, or a questionnaire. I wanted to see if they had noticed in the process in which they were involved, if they noticed the difference between having a systematic way of carrying out the evaluation and not.

[00:40:28]

K: And what do you think? Did they notice?

F: It's difficult, because it's the first time they do it, but I wanted to see if by trying to elicit if they could realize on their own. Some things they did realize, but some others they didn't. But it's natural. It's very … of course. It's the first time they do this type of exercise. And it's like a meta-cognitive thing to think about the way in which they did it, and what came up, what they didn't realize in comparison to using checklists. But I think it's good that I forced them a bit. Even if they didn't come up with everything, but they realized a couple of things … But for example, the number of things they picked up in comparison to the checklist where you have like 15 points or more, I don't know, I haven't counted them. But they came up only with four things and not all of them were at the same level of relevance.

K: Right.

F: But for example, what this girl said about the negative points is a good issue. I think it was interesting.

K: What do you mean by negative points?

F: She realized that they looked at the negative … at the flaws of the unit, no? They started like criticizing negatively. Not observing more neutrally the different aspects but trying to find criticisms.

K: Okay. Okay. All right

F: So, it's another standpoint. It's not what I was really interested in, but it was interesting.

K: Okay. I was just curious because I've seen you do both ways where you are obviously trying to draw out the information and this seemed like it was a very long case of you eliciting. And I was wondering, why did you spend so much time on that?

F: Because this was like a different case in the sense that they hadn't gone through this process before.

K: And do you think by doing it that way your students will be more aware of it in the future?

F: Maybe, but I don't know, really, the relevance in the long run. Who knows? It's like the same question you asked me before as regards "Will they use frameworks or instruments or criteria in the future to analyze materials?" Who know? Hopefully. Everything hopefully. They tend to forget many things and I know it's natural. And I know and I see it in [name of another course] that many of the things they've seen, that you felt at the time you taught them that they had grasped them, then you see. They either don't remember or haven't understood or they just forgot. It's a world of concepts so, poor things, after a while, I understand.

K: Yeah. I understand too … All right. A specific thing that I wanted to ask you. You were talking about vocabulary, meaning, and function and you were, again, eliciting, and you said something that I thought was really interesting. So, we touched on it, I think, during the first interview a bit. You said, "Think, it's common sense." And I'll play right around that area so you can remember what was going on. [plays audio recording for participant] Were you able to hear it? [participant nods 'Yes']. Okay. I thought it was interesting that you said, "Think. It's common sense." Why did you make that comment? Do you remember?

F: Because sometimes I feel that the students are looking for the precise word, term, concept, and sometimes it's from their common sense, their knowledge of the world, not necessarily from their academic knowledge and they just have to resort to more basic skills, I don't know, to realize things. And they sometimes look for something more sophisticated and it's not …

[00:46:45]

F: Yes. Yes. Yes. I know. I understand because he has to understand what … well the problems that we repeated the word, what the word means. What we understand by it. Maybe, well, in grammar, it was connected to use and vocabulary it's not. It's two different things, no? And they know what the meaning of the word is, but they couldn't come up with an explanation. And then, maybe, when I told them, they could realize better.

K: Yeah. So, you feel that saying that …

F: It doesn't always help because they fight for the term I'm looking for, but it's a good exercise anyway to try to find … because all of this thinking that I think that they are internally going through to get an answer helps in building the concepts. That's my belief, but I don't know if I'm right.

K: That's okay.

F: It's a belief. A belief from me as a learner, as a teacher, experience as being a teacher and things I think have worked through the years.

Appendix 5: Sample matrix of findings (Ines) – First version

INTERNAL FACTORS	
Said, "Guys don't be so, self-conscious, we all have an accent. Go on": I made that comment because I don't want them to be so self-conscious. I don't want them to think that their English is not good enough to speak in class. And what I said about our accent is that - when I was a student the teachers wanted to imitate native speakers. But nowadays there is a new tendency as of international English. And we realise - we are speaking English - we realise that we have an accent. So, we can be modelled for the student at a certain point. Nobody will speak like the queen. We are Argentinians. I will not speak like you speak. Obviously. So, I want them to realise that I will not criticize them if they don't pronounce well. I try to help. You saw that some of them mispronounced words and I did not stop them. I mean I did not ask them to stop and I did not provide the good pronunciation - the correct pronunciation. Because I want them to read, to be more self-confident" (SRI1). P.1	-Believes comments can help SS' self-consciousness -Believes accent is not important -Doesn't want SS to feel self-conscious because of their accent -Doesn't want SS' knowledge of their accent to impede SS talking in class -Believes in the importance of not criticizing SS too much due to their pronunciation -Wants SS to interact and be more self-confidence so she doesn't focus heavily on pronunciation -comments to encourage SS -comment in reference to accent -correction of pronunciation -SS participation
"I want my students to realise that I can make mistakes. So, sometimes I don't remember a word so, I ask the assistant or ask the students to look the word up. Something I don't remember whether it's an s or two ss. Ok. So, I want them to feel, to give them the idea that I am learning too. That I can make mistakes too. Right. So, in that way they will feel more comfortable, but I feel more comfortable. Because I can make a mistake. Sometimes if I write a word, and keep speaking and students say, "no it is two rs". So, I feel more comfortable" (SRI1). P.1	-Believes T is allowed to make mistakes -Wants SS to know that she doesn't know all the answers and that she is constantly learning as a T -Feels comfortable when SS know she doesn't know all the answers -Importance of making SS comfortable -T making mistakes/not knowing everything -continuous learning and development on the part of the T
"The older I am, the less self-conscious I am. But I have always tried to do that. I have always tried to tell student that I didn't know	-Feels more self-confidence the older she gets -Believes T is allowed to make mistakes

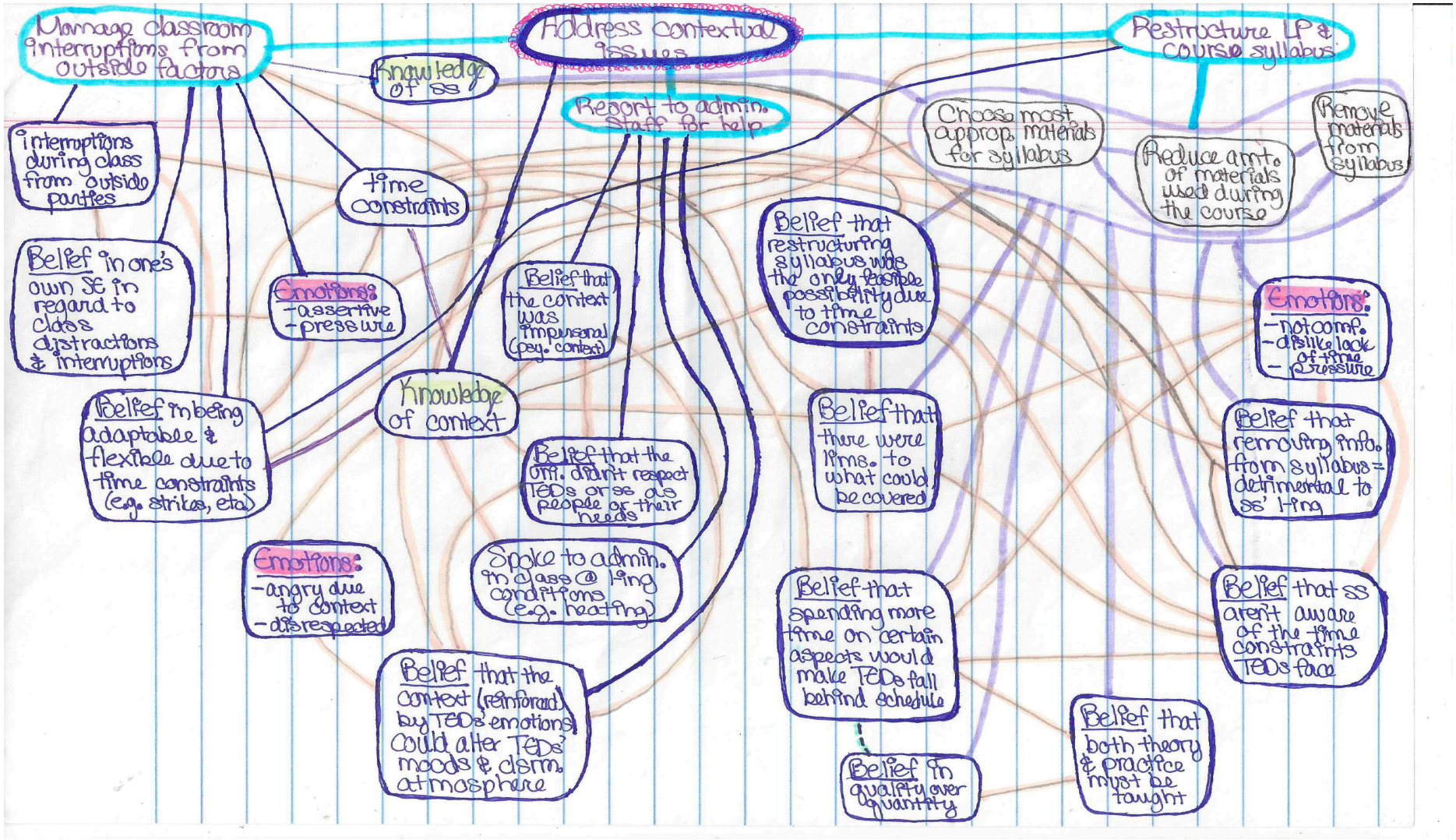
everything. I am not a walking dictionary I tell them. If we need to look up a word, we look it up. I am not going to lie to you. But I feel more self-confident" (SRI1). P.1	-professional development *COULD ALSO BE BACKGROUND
"I don't like making mistakes. In general, I am quite absent minded. I can focus on what I am doing but I am absent minded. Sometimes I forget some words because I am thinking about something else. I don't feel bad. I don't like making mistakes. I would rather avoid the situation. But if I make a mistake I try not to feel bad. And I try not to let the students know that I feel I made a big mistake" (SRI1). P.2	-Doesn't like making mistakes -Doesn't feel good when she realizes she's made an error in class -Tries not to feel bad if she makes a mistake -Tries not to let SS know she's made a mistake -T making mistakes/not knowing everything
"Maybe because it was a big mistake compared to others. And then because I couldn't avoid saying that. And also, because sometimes I forget. If the paragraph is long, then I forget what word I had to correct. So, in the past sometimes when students read or spoke I had a paper and pen. I wrote the words they mispronounced. But I think that makes them self-conscious about their reading" (SRI1). P.2	-Gives immediate feedback when she feels the SS have made a big mistake -Used to keep track of mistakes, but feels that this made SS feel self-conscious -feedback, both immediate and delayed
"I think that if you stop a student each time he mispronounces a word or makes a mistake, the student will be ashamed. He will not want to go on reading. Or next time you ask that student to read he will not read … But sometimes I cannot avoid interfering. On the one hand, I cannot avoid interfering and on the other hand, as I told you, because if the paragraph I am afraid I will not remember the mistake once they finish reading the paragraph. Sometimes I try to remember what they said and I correct them as soon as they finish reading. But sometimes I forget. And anyway, sometimes because it comes out" (SRI1). P.2	-Believes SS feel badly and ashamed if T constantly provides immediate corrections -Feels she must sometimes stop SS → especially if she thinks she will not remember the correction later -feedback, both immediate and delayed

Appendix 6: Sample overall findings matrix used in order to write the discussion

Theme	PAD	Factors	Comments
Activating students' background knowledge	1. Ask students questions 2. Help students develop criticality through questions 3. Model role of teacher for students 4. Elicit information, schemata, points of view, and feedback from students 5. Use visual aids	1-4.a. Cognitive influences: • Belief that it is more beneficial for students to engage in a cognitive 'struggle' to find answers than to have TED readily provide answers b. Student agency: • Belief that students should be active in their own learning c. Student autonomy: • Belief that students should not be solely reliant on TED for their learning d. Collaborative learning: • Belief that students can help one another e. Student-centered approach to learning: • Belief in creating more student-centric lessons/learning environment • Class participation: Belief that not participating is detrimental to students' learning 5.a. Cognitive influences: • Belief that visuals aided in her students' learning and remembrance (based on TED's own previous learning and cognitive style) (#6 & 11 Evans)	
Addressing contextual issues	6. Manage classroom interruptions from outside factors	6.a. Interruptions during class from outside parties (e.g. student reps, charity collections) → local flavor of the context 6.b. Belief in one's own self-efficacy in regard to class distractions and interruptions (#7 Evans) 6.c. Strikes and cancellations 6.d. Belief in being adaptable and flexible due to time issues caused by	*self-efficacy belief prompts TEDs to take actions *contextual factor = the catalyst which leads to beliefs (or is influenced by beliefs) and these beliefs are reinforced by emotions TEDs experience

	7. Spoke to administrator in class about learning conditions (e.g. heating) 8. Restructure lesson plan and course syllabus	strikes and cancellations 7.a. Belief that the context was very impersonal (psychological context) 7.b. Belief in that the university did not respect (psychological context) TEDs or students as people and their needs 7.c. Belief that the context (reinforced by TEDs' emotions) could alter TEDs' moods and classroom atmosphere • Emotions: felt angry due to context and lack of support 8.a. Belief in being adaptable and flexible due to time issues caused by strikes and cancellations → which impacts emotions (feel stress) 8.b. Strikes/cancellations 8.c. Time constraints • Emotions: Pressure	*Beliefs allow TEDs to restructure syllabus, be self-efficacious, adaptable, and flexible

Appendix 7: Sample diagram of findings



Appendix 8: Ethical Approval form

Department of Education | UNIVERSITY OF BATH

FORM valid from 01/08/2015

ETHICAL IMPLICATIONS OF PROPOSED RESEARCH
MPhil/PhD

To be completed by the student and approved by the supervisor then submitted for approval by the Director of Studies before any data collection takes place. Before completing the form, students should read the guidelines published by the British Educational Research Association (BERA), which are available in Moodle and at **www.bera.ac.uk**

Introduction

Full name of student: Katherine A. Halet	**Student number** [redacted]
Provisional title of your study: An Investigation into Teacher Emotions and Identity: A Multiple-Case Study of Undergraduate Language Teacher Educators in Argentina	
Justification for your study: I would like to examine the impact that teacher self-efficacy has on second language teacher educators' pedagogical decisions. This is an underexplored area that would benefit from research.	

Participants

1. Who are the main participants in your research (such as interviewees, respondents)? My main participants will be three or four second language teacher educators in higher education in Argentina.
2. How will you find and contact these participants? I have already begun to make contact with current and former second language teacher educators in the context I would like to explore. They have been extremely helpful and have said that they will put me in contact with more teacher educators.
3. How and from whom will you obtain informed consent and communicate the right to withdraw? I would do this for all of the participants who want to take part in my study. I will detail all of this information in the written consent form.
4. Have you approached any other body or organisation for permission to conduct this research? No. I am investigating individuals, not an organization. However, I will look into contacting any necessary bodies or organizations so as to make sure my research upholds all ethical standards.
5. At what stages of your research, and in what ways will participants be involved? My participants will be involved in the following stages:
   - Consent forms → These forms will be required of all participants prior to the start of data collection. They will be informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any time. The participants will also be assured that all steps will be taken to ensure their privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity.
   - Autobiographical Background Interviews → I will conduct a background interview with the participants to learn about their pasts. They will be asked to complete a reflective concept map prior to this interview.

- Observations → I will conduct approximately eight to ten classroom observations with each participant over the course of an academic year.
- Reflective Journal → I will ask the participants to complete four or five reflective journal entries after observations during the data collection process. I will let the participants know that I will read these journal entries and that they will be used in the stimulated recall interviews.
- Stimulated Recall Interviews → I will conduct approximately 10-12 semi-structured stimulated recall interviews with each participant over the course of the academic year.
- Respondent Checking → I will ask the participants to engage in respondent checking to ensure that their views have been accurately represented in my study.

6. Have you considered how to share your findings with participants and how to thank them for their participation? Yes. I will let the participants know that I would like them to partake in respondent checking to endure that their views have been accurately represented. Additionally, I will explain to the participants how the data will be stored, for how long, and how it will ultimately be destroyed. Finally, I will send personalized thank you notes to each participant at the end of the project.

Deception and exploitation avoidance, confidentiality, privacy and accuracy

7. How will you present the purpose of your research? Do you foresee any problems? I plan on informing my participants of the overall purpose and focus of my study either verbally or in writing. I would like to be as overt as possible in my research.

8. In what ways might your research cause harm (physical or psychological distress or discomfort, or threat to self-esteem) to yourself or others? What will you do to minimise this? Would access to support be available (if appropriate)? My project is focusing on teacher cognitions so it is possible that the participants may experience some psychological distress or discomfort during the process. I do not anticipate this, but I am aware of this possibility. It is therefore essential that I make the participants feel as comfortable and confident as possible during this process. I will also make it very clear that the participants are able to opt out of any task that they do not want to partake in or of the study itself. Additionally, I will arrange our observations and interviews around my participants' schedules and will suggest we meet in a public place to ensure our security.

9. What measures are in place to safeguard the identity of participants and locations? Are there special circumstances for consideration e.g. special populations such as children under 16 years? I will use pseudonyms for each of the participants and the location in Argentina to ensure for privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity.

10. How will you record information faithfully and accurately? I will take all steps possible to record the information I have collected faithfully and accurately. I plan on keeping a researcher's field diary. I will transcribe any interviews and plan on storing any other data collected in cloud storage. I plan on doing this so that I may be able to access my data at anytime, anywhere in the world.

Student: Katherine A. Halet	**Signature:** [redacted] **Date: 26-9-15**

Lead supervisor:	**Signature:** [redacted] **Date: 20.09.15**
Director of Studies:	**Signature** [redacted] **Date: 21/10/2015**

A copy of this form to be placed in [1] the student file, and [2] an Ethics Approval File held by the Director of Studies. The Director of Studies will report annually to the Department's Research Committee on ethical issues of particular interest that have been raised during the year.

Appendix 9: Sample participant consent form

CONSENT FORM

I freely and voluntarily consent to be a participant in the research project on the topic of teacher educator beliefs and pedagogical practices to be conducted by Katherine Halet as part of her PhD thesis at the Department of Education, University of Bath. I have been informed that the data collection methods to be used include a background interview detailing my teaching experience, approximately 8 classroom observations and face-to-face follow-up interviews, and a short series of personal reflections (written journal entries or voice recordings). I have been explained the nature of these methods to my satisfaction. I understand that my participation will extend over a period of approximately 15-20 weeks.

I have been told that my responses will be kept strictly confidential. I also understand that my participation in this study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from it at any time without giving any reason and without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way. Should I decide to withdraw from the study, my data will be destroyed immediately. In addition, I am free to decline to respond to any particular question(s) or to complete any particular task(s). I can also ask the researcher to delete or not make use of some of the information I provide. My real name will not be linked with the research materials and I will not be identified or identifiable in any report or publication subsequently produced by the researcher. Information about the institution, policies, colleagues, students, and teaching materials may be included in the study, but all identifying details will be removed.

I have been given the opportunity to ask questions regarding the study and my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I have been informed that if I have any general questions about this project, I should feel free to contact Katherine Halet at her e-mail address: [redacted]

I have read and understand the above and consent to participate in this study. I understand that I will be able to keep a copy of this consent form for my records.

_____ _____

Participant's Signature Date

I have explained and defined in detail the research procedure in which the participant has consented to participate. I will retain a copy of this consent form for my records.

_____ _____

Researcher's Signature Date